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MADRAS DISTRICT MANUALS.

COIMBATORE.

(VOLUME II.)

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MADRAS DISTRICT MANUALS.

COIMBATORE.

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MANUAL

OF THE

COIMBATORE DISTRICT.

CHAPTER I.

AREA AND POPULATION.

CHAP. I. AREA AND ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS.

Statement showing the Area, Population and Divisional Charges of the Coimbatore District.

Taluk.	Area in square miles.	Population according to the census of 1891.	Designation of Divisional officer and his head-quarter station.
Coimbatore	804	307,194	Head-quarter Deputy Collector (Coimbatore).
Satyamangalam	1,185	184,105	
TOTAL ...	**1,989**	**491,299**	
Bhaváni	715	119;869	Sub-Collector (Erode).
Dhárápuram	836	249,221	
Erode	598	247,008	
Karúr	612	211,794	
TOTAL ...	**2,761**	**827,892**	
Palladam	741	270,390	Head Assistant Collector (Polláchi).
Polláchi	710	183,669	
Udamalpet	583	143,056	
TOTAL ...	**2,034**	**597,115**	
Kollégál	1,076	88,533	General Duty Deputy Collector (Kollégál).
TOTAL ...	**1,076**	**88,533**	
Grand Total ...	**7,860**	**2,004,839**	

The area of the Coimbatore district is 7,860 square miles, and there are only six districts in the presidency of a greater extent. The ten taluks vary in size considerably, the two smallest being

CHAP. I.
ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS.

Udamalpet and Erode, while the two largest are Satyamangalam (1,185) and Kollégál (1,076). But about half of Satyamangalam is forest and a very large proportion of Kollégál is not available for cultivation.

The district is divided into four administrative divisions, of which the Sub-Collector's is the largest in respect both of area and population. For the presidency as a whole the average area of a division is 1,680 square miles and the average population is 418,785. When there is an Assistant Collector of sufficient standing the head-quarter division, consisting of the Coimbatore and Satyamangalam taluks, is placed in his charge.

POPULATION.

The following table gives the population from 1822, when the first census was attempted. The figures are, however, probably understated till the census of 1871, in which females, who, except in 1822, had till then been returned as fewer than males, were returned in excess, viz., in the ratio of about 102 to 100 :

YEARS.	POPULATION.	YEARS.	POPULATION.
1822	638,199	1861	1,215,920
1836	783,392	1866	1,430,738
1851	1,153,862	1871 (November).	1,763,274
1856	1,176,831	1881 (February).	1,657,690

The figures up to 1866 include the inhabitants of the Nílgiris, who in 1871 were separately enumerated and returned as 49,501 persons. The true district total for 1866 was 1,392,596, and the increase in 1871 was 370,678, being a percentage of 26·6 in five years; this shows that, even allowing for abnormal reproduction, the 1866 and previous censuses were very imperfect, though under the circumstances then existing, viz., the stimulus to the ryot class of high prices and good returns, a very high increase may be assumed for 1866–71. In 1875 the ryots actually complained to Mr. Robertson that their families were larger than they used to be; this, though not very good evidence, since the assertion could hardly be within their own experience, is corroborative of the opinion that reproduction and increase were then abnormally high.

In November 1871 the population was 1,763,274; in February 1881 it was 1,657,690, showing a loss of 105,584 or 5 99 per cent., due to the famine of 1877–78. Calculated by the estimated normal increase of 12 per mille per annum, the population, but for the famine, would have stood in 1881 at 1,969,200, or 311,510 more than were actually found.

The subjoined statement shows the population of each taluk in 1881 and 1891 :—

Statement showing the Variation in Population between 1881 *and* 1891.

Taluk.	1891.	1881.	Variation.	Percentage of variation.	Percentage of variation between 1871 & 1881.
Bhaváni	119,869	94,123	+ 25,746	+ 27·35	− 8·45
Coimbatore ...	307,194	267,804	+ 39,390	+ 14·71	+ 9·76
Dhárápuram ...	249,221	195,232	+ 53,989	+ 27·65	− 10·24
Erode	247,008	195,669	+ 51,339	+ 26·24	− 16·22
Karúr	211,794	177,155	+ 34,639	+ 19·55	+ 0·85
Kollégál	88,533	77,522	+ 11,011	+ 14·20	− 14·65
Palladam	270,390	213,391	+ 56,999	+ 26·71	− 10·27
Pollâchi	183,669	172,909	+ 10,760	+ 6·22	+ 3·20
Satyamangalam ...	184,105	151,313	+ 32,792	+ 21·67	− 10·95
Udamalpet ...	143,056	112,572	+ 30,484	+ 27·08	− 8·96
TOTAL ...	**2,004,839**	**1,657,690**	**+ 347,149**	**+ 20·94**	**− 5·99**

The population of the Coimbatore district on the 26th February 1891 was 2,004,839. The increase since the 17th February 1881 is 347,149 or 20·94 per cent. This is equivalent to a yearly increment of 1·9 per cent., which is a high rate of increase. It is, no doubt, in part due to the circumstances produced by the famine, which rendered life somewhat easier for those classes who suffered most severely, and in part to the fact that the famine mortality having been heaviest on the young and old, the population of 1881 had an unusually small proportion at the unproductive ages. Thus in 1881 the proportion of children under five years of age was a little over 13 per cent. of the total population, but in 1891 it was well over 16 per cent. Moreover in 1881 the number under five was less than the number at the 5–14 period, and in the case of males less than the number between 15 and 20. The number of old people, that is those of 60 years of age and upwards, was also considerably lower in 1881 than in 1891.

Number of children under five years of age in a total population of 10,000.

Year.	Males.	Females.
1881	1,305	1,313
1891	1,648	1,639

The population of the presidency as a whole increased in the decade 1881–91 by 15·58 per cent., but in the nine famine districts, of which Coimbatore is one, the rate of increase was 20·11 per cent., while in the non-famine districts it was only 12·85 per cent. The normal rate of increase of the population of the presidency has been estimated at 12½ per mille per annum, and it is probable that the population of Coimbatore will advance at this

CHAP. I. POPULATION.

rate between 1891 and 1901. If this view is correct, the population in the latter year will be about 2,270,000.

The increase as shown by the last census was smallest in the Polláchi taluk, and it is significant that in this tract there are only 467 acres of land available for cultivation. In Kollégál, however, the taluk with the next lowest rate of increase, the returns show nearly 236,000 acres of culturable and unoccupied land; but the rate of growth there was 14·20 per cent., or considerably more than the 6·22 per cent. of Polláchi. Kollégál is an unhealthy taluk and the relatively low rate of increase found there is possibly due to high mortality. The population of the Coimbatore taluk increased by 14·71 per cent., but this taluk does not seem to have suffered much from the famine, as the census of 1881 showed an increase of 9·76 per cent. The circumstances, therefore, which have produced a high rate of increase in famine tracts were absent in this case, or at least present in less force.

DENSITY.

Statement showing the Density of each Taluk.

Taluk.	Number of persons to the square mile.
Bhaváni	168
Coimbatore	382
Dhárápuram	298
Erode	413
Karúr	346
Kollégál	82
Palladam	365
Polláchi	259
Satyamangalam	155
Udamalpet	245
TOTAL ...	255

There are 255 persons to the square mile, the average for the presidency, exclusive of the Agency tracts, being 281. The relatively light density of the population in Coimbatore is due to the high proportion of hill and forest in the district. If we exclude forests and other lands not available for cultivation, the area is only 5,137 square miles, and the number of inhabitants to the square mile is 390. Including all classes of land the density is greatest in Erode, and it is fairly high in Coimbatore, Palladam and Karúr. Taking the district as a whole there are 2·51 acres to each inhabitant, the average for the presidency being 2·27 acres. In the Ponnáni taluk of Malabar and the Kumbakónam taluk of Tanjore there is only about half an acre per head. The pressure of the people on the land is further discussed in Chapter IX.

CHAP. I. HOUSES.

In connection with the census returns were prepared showing all houses in which persons were enumerated. The statistics for Coimbatore are given below :—

Taluk.	Number of occupied houses.	Average number of inmates per occupied house.
Bhaváni	26,163	4·6
Coimbatore	57,731	5·3
Dhárápuram	55,988	4·5
Erode	56,426	4·4
Karúr	47,432	4·5
Kollégál	14,776	6·0
Palladam	56,061	4·8
Pollâchi	39,975	4·6
Satyamangalam	40,236	4·6
Udamalpet	29,776	4·8
TOTAL ...	**424,564**	**4·7**

The total number of occupied houses is 424,564 and there are on an average 4·72 persons to each house. The average number of inmates varies from 6·0 in Kollégál to 4·4 in Erode. The average for the presidency is 5·31. The following statement shows the nature of the roofs of houses and other buildings, such as shops, schools, temples, &c. :—

——	Tiled.	Terraced.	Thatched.	Total.	Percentage of thatched.
Houses	101,223	3,617	339,332	**444,172**	76·40
Other buildings ...	5,441	4,870	7,719	**18,030**	42·81
TOTAL ...	**106,664**	**8,487**	**347,051**	**462,202**	**75·09**

In 1871 as many as 86·7 per cent. of the *occupied* houses were thatched, so that there has been a marked improvement in the twenty years, notwithstanding the heavy loss caused by the great famine. The statistics of 1871 relate to occupied houses only, while those of 1891 include all dwelling houses, whether occupied or not; and inasmuch as the vacant houses would be almost entirely inferior buildings, the improvement is really greater than that shown by the above figures. In 1881 information regarding the roofs of houses was not collected. The annexed statement gives the statistics for each taluk and municipality.

Statement of Houses.

Taluk.	Tiled.			Terraced.			Thatched.			Total.		
	Houses.	Other buildings.	Total.	Houses.	Other buildings.	Total.	Houses.	Other buildings.	Total.	Houses.	Other buildings.	Total.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Bhaváni	4,633	279	**4,912**	69	193	**262**	22,639	361	**23,000**	27,341	833	**28,174**
Coimbatore	18,474	588	**19,062**	316	308	**624**	35,049	751	**35,800**	53,839	1,647	**55,486**
Dhárápuram	8,632	484	**9,116**	441	832	**1,273**	56,228	1,130	**57,358**	65,301	2,446	**67,747**
Erode	6,892	260	**7,152**	128	357	**485**	34,506	1,131	**35,637**	41,526	1,748	**43,274**
Karúr	578	51	**629**	1,126	610	**1,736**	49,785	1,233	**51,018**	51,489	1,894	**53,383**
Kollégál	10,191	651	**10,842**	41	231	**272**	6,219	68	**6,287**	16,451	950	**17,401**
Palladam	15,747	807	**16,554**	22	623	**645**	42,036	1,194	**43,230**	57,805	2,624	**60,429**
Polláchi	8,620	464	**9,084**	396	306	**702**	34,916	590	**35,506**	43,932	1,360	**45,292**
Satyamangalam	10,977	663	**11,640**	31	282	**313**	32,053	776	**32,829**	43,061	1,721	**44,782**
Udamalpet	9,643	605	**10,248**	98	334	**432**	22,381	286	**22,667**	32,122	1,225	**33,347**
TOTAL ...	**94,387**	**4,852**	**99,239**	**2,668**	**4,076**	**6,744**	**335,812**	**7,520**	**343,332**	**432,867**	**16,448**	**449,315**
Coimbatore Municipality	5,375	438	**5,813**	286	253	**539**	1,863	39	**1,902**	7,524	730	**8,254**
Erode do.	1,387	107	**1,494**	101	171	**272**	557	32	**589**	2,045	310	**2,355**
Karúr do.	74	44	**118**	562	370	**932**	1,100	128	**1,228**	1,736	542	**2,278**
TOTAL ...	**6,836**	**589**	**7,425**	**949**	**794**	**1,743**	**3,520**	**199**	**3,719**	**11,305**	**1,582**	**12,887**
Grand Total ...	**101,223**	**5,441**	**106,664**	**3,617**	**4,870**	**8,487**	**339,332**	**7,719**	**347,051**	**444,172**	**18,030**	**462,202**

CHAP. I. TOWNS.

The district contains eight towns, of which Coimbatore alone is of any size. Since 1881, its population has increased by 19·03 per cent., or at a rate but little less than that for the whole district. Erode in the same period has increased by 25 per cent. and Karúr by 16·78 per cent. The total urban population is 110,203 or 5·50 per cent. of the total population. The proportion for the whole presidency, excluding the Agency Tracts, is 9·92 per cent., so Coimbatore is much more rural than most districts.

Statement showing the Population of each Town.

Town.	Population.		Variation.	Percentage of variation.
	1891.	1881.		
Coimbatore Municipality ...	46,383	38,967	+ 7,416	+ 19·03
Erode do. ...	12,330	9,864	+ 2,466	+ 25·00
Karúr do. ...	10,750	9,205	+ 1,545	+ 16·78
Udamalpet	9,968	8,627	+ 1,341	+ 15·54
Kollégál	9,946	8,462	+ 1,484	+ 17·54
Dhárápuram	7,680	7,310	+ 370	+ 5·06
Bhaváni	7,341	5,930	+ 1,411	+ 23·79
Polláchi	5,805	5,082	+ 723	+ 14·23

VILLAGES.

The total number of inhabited villages is 1,470, and there are 80 uninhabited. The following statement shows the distribution of the inhabited villages according to population groups :—

CHAP. I.
VILLAGES.

Villages classified by Population.

Taluk.	Total number of villages.	Total population.	1—199.		200—499.		500—999.		1,000—1,999.		2,000—2,999.		3,000—4,999.		5,000—9,999.	
			Number.	Population.	Number.	Population.	Number.	Population.	Number.	Population.	Number.	Population.	Number.	Population.	Number.	Population.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
Bhaváni	62	112,528	5	450	8	3,181	13	9,987	17	25,202	9	24,030	5	18,246	5	31,432
Coimbatore	263	260,811	27	3,059	73	26,624	81	55,795	53	70,137	15	34,579	7	24,701	7	45,916
Dhárápuram	81	241,541	...	...	4	1,787	6	4,777	18	24,513	17	43,641	28	114,808	8	52,015
Erode	202	234,678	22	2,562	55	18,967	49	35,612	47	66,201	9	20,564	15	60,497	5	30,275
Karúr	95	201,044	2	192	5	1,811	13	9,670	36	53,106	17	42,045	16	58,454	6	35,766
Kollégál	129	78,587	48	3,873	26	8,006	32	24,042	15	23,124	8	19,542	...	...	...	...
Palladam	195	270,390	10	1,175	28	10,180	56	41,237	57	84,470	25	62,739	18	65,354	1	5,235
Polláchi	160	177,864	13	1,273	31	10,858	58	43,660	40	53,667	5	11,280	10	34,832	3	22,294
Satyamangalam	191	184,105	41	2,744	40	13,149	42	31,090	38	51,825	21	47,862	8	30,290	1	7,145
Udamalpet	92	133,088	7	547	9	3,016	20	14,810	28	41,062	21	49,421	7	24,232	...	...
TOTAL ...	1,470	1,894,636	175	15,875	279	97,579	370	270,680	349	493,307	147	355,703	114	431,414	36	230,078

CHAP. I. VILLAGES.

The average population of a village is 1,289, but the divergence from the mean is considerable. Taking towns and villages together, we have the following statistics:—

Population.	Percentage of towns and villages in each group.		Number of persons in 1,000 living in each class of town or village.	
	Coimbatore.	Presidency.*	Coimbatore.	Presidency.*
1— 199	11·84	27·55	8	35
200— 499	18·88	27·92	49	124
500— 999	25·03	22·86	135	216
1,000—1,999	23·61	14·59	246	267
2,000—2,999	9·95	4·10	177	131
3,000—4,999	7·71	2·06	215	101
5,000 and over	2·98	0·92	170	126
TOTAL ...	100·00	100·00	1,000	1,000

* Exclusive of the Agency Tracts.

The average population of a town and village is 1,356, the average size is 5·32 square miles, and the mean distance between each is 2·48 miles. These figures are all considerably above the presidency average, and there is great variation from taluk to taluk. There are 36 villages with a population over 5,000, and the proportion of large villages, *i.e.*, those containing more than 2,000 inhabitants is considerable.

IMMIGRATION AND EMIGRATION.

Statistics of Birth-place for people enumerated in Coimbatore.

Birth-place.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Number per million.
A. District of enumeration— Coimbatore	1,953,415	959,217	994,198	...
Total A ...	1,953,415	959,217	994,198	974,456
B. Contiguous districts, &c.—				
(*a*) *In same province*—				
Salem	14,802	5,897	8,905	...
Trichinopoly ...	6,424	2,547	3,877	...
Madura	10,358	3,998	6,360	...
Malabar	3,117	2,033	1,084	...
Nílgiris	524	276	248	...
Travancore	63	46	17	...
Cochin	270	155	115	...
TOTAL (*a*) ...	35,558	14,952	20,606	17,736
(*b*) *In other provinces*— Mysore	8,703	3,530	5,173	...
TOTAL (*b*) ...	8,703	3,530	5,173	4,341
Total B ...	44,261	18,482	25,779	22,077

CHAP. I.
IMMIGRATION AND EMIGRATION.

Statistics of Birth-place for people enumerated in Coimbatore—cont.

Birth-place.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Number per million.
C. Remote Districts and States of same province—				
I. British territory ...	5,846	3,124	2,722	...
II. Feudatory States ...	54	27	27	...
Total C ...	5,900	3,151	2,749	2,943
D. Provinces and States in India—				
I. British territory ...	531	419	112	...
II. Feudatory States ...	358	223	135	...
Total D ...	889	642	247	443
E. Countries in Asia beyond India—				
I. Adjacent to India ...	42	26	16	21
II. Remote from India ...	7	7	...	4
Total E ...	49	33	16	25
F. Foreign countries—				
Europe	104	61	43	...
Africa	6	3	3	...
Australasia	2	2	...	...
Total F ...	112	66	46	56
G. Birth-place not returned ...	213	109	104	...
Total G ...	213	109	104	...
Grand Total ...	2,004,839	981,700	1,023,139	1,000,000

Natives of Coimbatore enumerated elsewhere.

Enumerated.	Total.	Males.	Females.
In contiguous districts—			
Salem	14,717	5,895	8,822
Trichinopoly	6,866	2,747	4,119
Madura	15,009	6,049	8,960
Malabar	3,559	2,044	1,515
Nílgiris	10,585	6,621	3,964
Travancore	580	479	101
Cochin	2,096	1,047	1,049
TOTAL ...	53,412	24,882	28,530
Elsewhere	6,443	3,729	2,714
Grand Total ...	59,855	28,611	31,244

CHAP. I.
IMMIGRATION AND EMIGRATION.

The birth-place statistics collected at the census are of value as showing the extent of migration to and from each district. As the district limits are arbitrary and conventional, it follows that there will be a good deal of intercourse between people living near the boundary and those residing just across it, and intermarriage between the inhabitants of villages so situated is of course common. This fact is well marked by the decided predominance, as a rule, of the female sex among the immigrants from contiguous districts or states, and the statistics are arranged so as to bring out this feature clearly.

It will be seen from the above statements, that there is very little immigration into Coimbatore, for no less than 97·45 per cent. of the people enumerated in that district were born in it. This is above the average for the presidency, which is 95·84 per cent. Among the immigrants from contiguous districts and states, the excess of females referred to above is very marked, and it may be confidently concluded that very few of these are real immigrants. Thus we have 99·65 per cent. of the population returned as born in the district or in an adjoining district or state. The corresponding figure for the presidency is 99·08 per cent. The proportion of the Coimbatore population born in remote districts or states of Madras is 0·29 per cent., which leaves only 0·06 per cent. as coming from other provinces of India and other countries.

The statistics of emigrants from Coimbatore are not complete as the returns of Mysore and other provinces and states, except Coorg, give no information for any smaller area than the presidency. The returns available show nearly 60,000 natives of Coimbatore living in other districts and states of Madras or in Coorg. Of this number 53,412 were enumerated in adjoining districts or states, and of these again 36,592 living in Salem, Trichinopoly and Madura consisted of 14,691 males and 21,901 females. The excess of the female sex shows that the movement which these figures indicate is due largely to intermarriage between the inhabitants of Coimbatore and the other districts. In the Nílgiris, on the other hand, the 10,585 natives of Coimbatore were made up of 6,621 males and 3,964 females, and the majority of these people are labourers on coffee, tea and cinchona estates, who return to their native villages every year after the crop is taken. The same relation of the sexes is found among the Coimbatore people living in Malabar, but the figures are much smaller. It may be stated, then, that there is practically no immigration into Coimbatore, and that there is emigration, to a trifling extent and of a temporary nature, to the Nílgiris and Malabar, and probably to Mysore also.

Statistics of Religion.

Statement showing the Religions of the Population.

Taluk.	Hindus.			Musalmans.			Christians.			Others.			Percentage on total population.			
	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Hindus.	Musalmans.	Christians.	Others.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
Bhaváni	**116,337**	57,266	59,071	**1,138**	608	530	**2,394**	1,160	1,234	...	...	...	97·05	0·95	2·00	...
Coimbatore	**295,025**	144,087	150,938	**6,802**	3,526	3,276	**5,101**	2,424	2,677	**266**	247	19	96·04	2·21	1·66	0·09
Dhárápuram	**244,082**	120,341	123,741	**4,693**	2,165	2,528	**446**	224	222	...	...	...	97·94	1·88	0·18	...
Erode	**242,731**	120,178	122,553	**3,384**	1,656	1,728	**872**	427	445	**21**	13	8	98·27	1·37	0·35	0·01
Karúr	**201,179**	98,281	102,898	**9,576**	3,774	5,802	**1,039**	513	526	...	...	...	94·99	4·52	0·49	...
Kollégál	**84,952**	41,703	43,249	**3,269**	1,707	1,562	**292**	161	131	**20**	9	11	95·96	3·69	0·33	0·02
Palladam	**263,422**	129,029	134,393	**4,200**	1,987	2,213	**2,759**	1,315	1,444	**9**	6	3	97·42	1·55	1·02	0·01
Polláchi	**180,250**	87,474	92,776	**3,264**	1,710	1,554	**155**	75	80	...	...	...	98·14	1·78	0·08	...
Satyamangalam ...	**178,674**	87,572	91,102	**3,264**	1,647	1,617	**2,167**	1,069	1,098	...	...	...	97·05	1·77	1·18	...
Udamalpet	**138,358**	67,108	71,250	**4,357**	2,080	2,277	**341**	158	183	...	...	...	96·71	3·05	0·24	...
TOTAL ...	**1,945,010**	**953,039**	**991,971**	**43,947**	**20,860**	**23,087**	**15,566**	**7,526**	**8,040**	**316**	**275**	**41**	**97·01**	**2·19**	**0·78**	**0·02**

CHAPTER II.

RELIGION, CASTE AND LANGUAGE.

CHAP. II. RELIGION. Statistics of Religion.

THE people of Coimbatore are almost entirely Hindus, no less than 97·01 per cent. of the population being of that religion. A higher proportion is found in only two districts, Vizagapatam and Gódávari, while the proportion for the whole presidency is 89·84 per cent. Musalmans form 2·19 per cent. of the population of Coimbatore, the corresponding proportion for the presidency as a whole being 6·32 per cent. Christianity has not made great progress in the district, the proportion of Christians being under 1 per cent., while the increase since the census of 1881 was only 16·81 per cent., or less than the rate for the population as a whole.

The proportions in the various taluks do not present any marked divergences. Musalmans are relatively most numerous in Karúr, Kollégál and Udamalpet and Christians in Bhaváni, but Hindus form the vast majority of the population in every taluk.

Sects of Hindus.

As in all Tamil districts the Hindus are mostly members of the Saiva sect. Vaishnavism, however, appears to be slightly increasing, for in 1881 only 22·53 per cent. of the Hindus were of this sect, while in 1891 the proportion was 23·28 per cent., or if we include the Mádhvas as was done in 1881, the proportion is 23·72 per cent. The Lingáyats numbered 5,015 only in 1871, but in 1891 as many as 20,620 returned themselves as of this sect. Of this number 17,667 were found in the Kollégál taluk. It is probable that the earlier returns of this sect were inaccurate; many of them return themselves as Vírasaivas and these perhaps were taken to be Saivites.

Sect.	Number.			Percentage.		
	1871.	1881.	1891.	1871.	1881.	1891.
Saivites	1,318,866	1,207,466	1,461,982	76·90	75·17	75·16
Vaishnavites ...	390,925	361,972	452,764	22·79	22·53	23·28
Mádhvas	...	...	8,556	...	...	0·44
Lingáyats	5,015	4,505	20,620	0·29	0·28	1·06
Others and Not stated.	275	32,400	1,088	0·02	2·02	0·06
TOTAL ...	1,715,081	1,606,343	1,945,010	100·00	100·00	100·00

CHAP. II.
RELIGION.

Sects of Christians.

The following statement shows the sect of the Christian population :—

Christian Sects.

Sect.	1891.			1881.		
	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.
Baptist	13	5	8	16	9	7
Church of England ...	587	297	290	394	201	193
Church of Scotland ...	2	...	2	7	3	4
Congregationalist ...	355	166	189	192	88	104
Episcopalian ...	14	10	4	...	...	...
Free Church of Scotland.	1	1	...	...	...	...
Lutheran	262	129	133	101	60	41
Methodist	11	...	11	...	...	...
Nonconformist ...	5	4	1	...	...	...
Presbyterian ...	40	20	20	28	16	12
Protestant	178	88	90	720	365	355
Roman Catholic ...	13,725	6,615	7,110	10,870	5,248	5,622
Salvationist	5	3	2	...	...	...
Syrian	13	11	2	18	15	3
Unsectarian ...	9	5	4	...	...	...
Wesleyan	291	144	147	139	105	34
Others	...	...	...	55	27	28
Not stated	55	28	27	786	383	403
TOTAL ...	15,566	7,526	8,040	13,326	6,520	6,806

The figures for the two years are not fully comparable as the numbers under the vague head of Protestant, as well as those who did not return their sect, were much larger in 1881 than in the later year. Hence the increase of some of the Protestant sectaries is not so great as it appears. But taking all the Protestant sects together and distributing the 'Not stated' rateably between Protestants and Roman Catholics we have the following figures :

CHAP. II.
RELIGION.

Sects of Christians.

Sect.	1891.	1881.	Increase.	Increase per cent.
Roman Catholic ...	13,774	11,551	2,223	19·25
Protestant	1,792	1,775	17	0·96
TOTAL ...	15,566	13,326	2,240	16·81

It will be seen that the increase is almost entirely confined to the Roman Catholics, the Protestants having barely maintained their ground. Considering the rate at which the population as a whole has advanced, it is obvious that many of the Protestants must have returned to Hinduism or gone over to the Roman Church.

The Roman Catholics constitute 88·49 per cent. of the total Christian population; for the presidency the proportion is 66·12 per cent.

Christians by race.

The following statement distributes the Christians between the three heads of Foreign, Eurasian and Native :—

Race.	Total.	Roman Catholics.	Protestants.
Foreign	235	74	161
Eurasian	694	319	375
Native	14,637	13,381	1,256
TOTAL ...	15,566	13,774	1,792

The Natives constitute 94 per cent. of the whole, the Eurasians 4½ per cent., and the Foreign or European Christians 1½ per cent.

Religion of urban population.

The following statement shows the religion of the persons enumerated in the eight towns of the district :—

Towns arranged territorially with Population by Religion.

Town.	Total population.			Hindus.			Musalmans.			Christians.			Others.			Percentage on total population.			
	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Hindus.	Musalmans.	Christians.	Others.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
Coimbatore Municipality.	**46,383**	22,238	24,145	**40,099**	19,267	20,832	**3,414**	1,634	1,780	**2,821**	1,305	1,516	**49**	32	17	86·45	7·36	6·08	0·11
Erode do. ...	**12,330**	6,123	6,207	**10,481**	5,207	5,274	**1,393**	697	696	**453**	216	237	**3**	3	...	85·00	11·30	3·67	0·03
Karúr do. ...	**10,750**	5,162	5,588	**9,693**	4,632	5,061	**737**	380	357	**320**	150	170	...	...	...	90·17	6·85	2·98	...
Udamalpet	**9,968**	4,784	5,184	**8,811**	4,270	4,541	**1,114**	494	620	**43**	20	23	...	...	...	88·39	11·18	0·43	...
Kollégál	**9,946**	4,873	5,073	**9,372**	4,573	4,799	**559**	292	267	**14**	8	6	**1**	...	1	94·23	5·62	0·14	0·01
Dhárápuram	**7,680**	3,590	4,090	**5,873**	2,749	3,124	**1,574**	724	850	**233**	117	116	...	...	...	76·47	20·50	3·03	...
Bhaváni	**7,341**	3,565	3,776	**7,120**	3,460	3,660	**181**	86	95	**40**	19	21	...	...	...	96·99	2·47	0·54	...
Polláchi	**5,805**	2,896	2,909	**5,120**	2,531	2,589	**574**	317	257	**111**	48	63	...	...	...	88·20	9·89	1·91	...
TOTAL ...	**110,203**	**53,231**	**56,972**	**96,569**	**46,689**	**49,880**	9,546	**4,624**	**4,922**	4,035	**1,883**	**2,152**	**53**	**35**	**18**	**87·63**	**8·66**	**3·66**	**0·05**

CHAP. II. RELIGION AND CASTE.

Religion of urban population.

The Musalmans form 8·66 per cent. of the urban population, while they constitute only 2·19 per cent. of the total population of the district. The difference is even greater in the case of the Christians. Of the Hindus only 4·96 per cent. are dwellers in towns, but of Musalmans the proportion is 21·72 per cent. and of Christians 25·92 per cent. This partiality of Musalmans and Christians for town life is found throughout the presidency.

CASTE.

The list given below shows all the castes returned at the census of 1891, together with the number of persons by whom each was returned. The castes have been classified with reference to traditional occupation or origin, but this classification must not be regarded as final, nor can every name which appears in the list be accepted as that of a real, separate and distinct caste. There are eight names which have been left unclassified owing to absence of information about them; some of these are probably the names of foreign castes, distorted by the enumerator's attempt to render them in his own vernacular.

The castes of most numerical importance are as follow :—

	1891.	1881.
Agamudaiyan	22,584	*17,924*
Kamma	27,822	*35,465*
Tottiyan	34,237	..
Vakkaliga	47,283	..
Vellála	629,540	*690,402*
Holeya	18,512	..
Pallan	40,547	..
Palli or Vanniyan	57,016	*42,019*
Paraiyan	75,481	*83,959*
Véttuvan	43,399	..
Bráhman	33,788	*29,792*
Chetti	100,544	*48,476*
Labbai	23,306	*27,185*
Vadugan	39,070	*12,102*
Kammála	46,043	*39,241*
Ambattan	24,823	*20,062*
Déványa	11,181	*18,880*
Kaikólan	56,249	*46,007*
Vannán	26,880	*23,317*
Idaiyan	12,764	*16,454*
Kurumban	30,782	*25,587*
Kusavan	17,643	*16,394*
Uppiliyan	22,420	..
Shánán	70,655	*55,517*
Chakkiliyan	176,608	*130,386*
Odde	64,614	*47,784*
Korava or Yerukala	12,417	..
Ándi	35,160	..

CHAP. II.
CASTE.

The strength of each caste in 1881 is also given, but the two sets of figures are not really comparable owing to the difference in the systems of classification. Concentration of groups was in many cases carried much further in 1881 than in 1891 and this accounts for the apparent decrease of some castes.

CASTES, TRIBES AND RACES.

Caste, Tribe or Race.	Total.	Males.	Females.
Agriculturists, formerly Military and Dominant.			
Agamudaiyan	22,584	11,047	11,537
Ambalakkáran	6,999	3,445	3,554
Áré	46	23	23
Kallan	1,142	534	608
Kshatriya	1,099	571	528
Maráthi	1,377	704	673
Maravan	2,174	1,047	1,127
Náyar	140	119	21
Parivåram	1,556	739	817
Pindári	10	4	6
Rájput	656	355	301
Ráju or Rázu	424	208	216
Raut	16	9	7
Velama	180	85	95
Agriculturists.			
Anuppan	1,525	727	798
Badaga	251	125	126
Dakhni	3	1	2
Gauda	3,708	1,790	1,918
Hanaba	10	4	6
Jain	36	19	17
Kamma	27,822	13,727	14,095
Káppiliyan	360	174	186
Kápu or Reddi	7,248	3,489	3,759
Kongan	157	75	82
Kunchiga	608	288	320
Lódhi	1	1	...
Malaimán	2	...	2
Nádava	10	6	4
Nattamán	729	343	386
Púluvan	5,620	2,683	2,937
Súdra	55	28	27
Telaga	331	167	164
Thákur	1	...	1
Tottiyan or Kambalattán ...	34,237	17,043	17,194
Vakkaliga	47,283	22,882	24,401
Vellála	629,540	308,950	320,590
Cattle-breeders and Graziers.			
Kannadiyan	1,858	911	947

CASTES, TRIBES AND RACES—*cont.*

Caste, Tribe or Race.	Total.	Males.	Females.
Field Labourers.			
Cheruman	33	13	20
Holeya	18,512	9,014	9,498
Kíraikkáran	31	22	9
Mála	26	12	14
Múppan	143	76	67
Pallan	40,547	19,629	20,918
Palli or Vanniyan	57,016	27,755	29,261
Paniyan	79	36	43
Pannaiyán	20	7	13
Paraiyan	75,481	35,963	39,518
Tigala	306	154	152
Úḻiyakkáran	504	242	262
Úráli	2,832	1,385	1,447
Véttuvan	43,399	21,176	22,223
Forest and Hill Tribes.			
Irula	7,020	3,575	3,445
Kádan	120	61	59
Malaiyálan	617	324	293
Malasar	5,405	2,748	2,657
Mudukan	247	112	135
Pulaiyan	940	498	442
Sólaga	2,500	1,260	1,240
Yerravála	1,113	550	563
Priests.			
Bráhmans—			
Ádisaiva	5	3	2
Ándhra	897	446	451
Árádhya	116	59	57
Aravattuvakkalu	911	435	476
Áruvélu	3,087	1,555	1,532
Ashtasahasram	523	273	250
Badaganádu	1,742	832	910
Bhatta	12	10	2
Brahacharanam	4,543	2,204	2,339
Bráhman	272	158	114
Chóladésam	142	71	71
Désasta	1,638	795	843
Díkshita	2	2	...
Drávida	90	42	48
Gauda	174	90	84
Gurukkal	309	151	158
Kambálava	364	170	194
Kamme	69	35	34
Kanauj	3	1	2
Kannadi	6	5	1
Karnakamma	212	113	99
Karnátaka	2,562	1,255	1,307
Kásalanádu	5	5	...
Koḻinjinádu	569	286	283

CHAP. II.
CASTE.

Castes, Tribes and Races—*cont.*

Caste, Tribe or Race.	Total.	Males.	Females.
Priests—cont.			
Bráhmans—*cont.*			
Kónasamudram	32	13	19
Kónasímai	56	26	30
Mádhva	686	385	301
Maharáshtra	26	12	14
Murikinádu	538	272	266
Nambi	51	21	30
Nambúdiri	11	7	4
Nandavaidíki	73	30	43
Nandavaríki	100	33	67
Niyógi	670	326	344
Pádiya	9	...	9
Pákanádu	2	...	2
Palakanádu	5	2	3
Pandita	32	18	14
Pennáttúr	127	63	64
Prathamasákha	6	2	4
Sárasvata	2	2	...
Sírnádu	37	14	23
Sivadvija	1,258	658	600
Smárta	207	122	85
Sóḻiya	580	280	300
Srívaishnava	183	83	100
Suklayajussákha	5	5	...
Tambadi	84	36	48
Telagánya	218	102	116
Tengalai	2,081	1,048	1,033
Tillaimúváyirattán	1	1	...
Ulachanádu	94	49	45
Vadagalai	1,929	965	964
Vadama	5,422	2,700	2,722
Vaidíki	97	53	44
Vaikhánasa	9	4	5
Vaishnava	13	9	4
Vájasanéya	101	44	57
Váttiman	15	7	8
Velanádu	568	294	274
Vénginádu	1	1	...
Others	206	140	66
TOTAL, BRÁHMANS ...	**33,788**	**16,823**	**16,965**
Jangam	457	225	232
Pandáram	593	294	299
Pidáran	1	1	...
Pújári	10	4	6
Valluva	2,875	1,458	1,417
Devotees.			
Bairági	9	5	4
Gósáyi	1	1	...
Tambirán	1	1	...

Castes, Tribes and Races—*cont.*

Caste, Tribe or Race.	Total.	Males.	Females.
Temple-Servants.			
Sátáni	2,580	1,279	1,301
Sivanadiyán	5	3	2
Stánika	2	2	...
Tiruppani	103	54	49
Writers.			
Kanakkan	787	387	400
Káyast	183	96	87
Astrologers and Physicians.			
Jósya	1	1	...
Kanisan	125	62	63
Musicians and Ballad-reciters.			
Bhatráju	366	176	190
Mélakkáran	31	11	20
Dancers and Singers.			
Dási	4	...	4
Nattuvan	23	5	18
Actors and Mimes.			
Killekyáta	69	45	24
Traders.			
Balija	4,776	2,363	2,413
Banajiga	1,927	916	1,011
Baniya	9	6	3
Chetti	100,544	49,086	51,458
Kavarai	5,332	2,546	2,786
Kómati	1,280	648	632
Labbai	23,306	10,402	12,904
Lála	17	11	6
Máppilla	127	100	27
Múttán	2	2	...
Nagarata	9	2	7
Sénaikkudaiyán	1	1	...
Sét	79	47	32
Tarakan	1	1	...
Vadugan	39,070	18,715	20,355
Vaisyan	251	132	119
Carriers.			
Lambádi or Banjári	1,465	769	696
Goldsmiths.			
Akkasále	152	74	78
Sonár	5	3	2
Tattán	704	369	335

CASTES, TRIBES AND RACES—*cont.*

Caste, Tribe or Race.	Total.	Males.	Females.
Artisans.			
Gejjegára	37	18	19
Kammála	46,043	23,124	22,919
Kuláchári	71	30	41
Barbers.			
Ambattan	24,823	12,331	12,492
Hajám	145	73	72
Tattooers.			
Pac'chaikkáran	171	93	78
Blacksmiths.			
Kollan	138	58	80
Carpenters, Masons and Turners.			
Kottan	49	25	24
Tac'chan	251	130	121
Brass and Coppersmiths.			
Kanchugára	46	26	20
Kannán	161	86	75
Tailors.			
Námdév	80	43	37
Pánan	1	1	...
Taiyalkáran	13	7	6
Perfumers and Betel-leaf sellers.			
Vettilaikkáran	4	1	3
Weavers, Calenderers and Dyers.			
Ac'chadikkáran	3	1	2
Bilimagga	1	1	...
Dévánga	11,181	5,493	5,688
Janappan	360	193	167
Kaikólan	56,249	27,019	29,230
Nésé or Nesavukkáran	6	2	4
Patnúl	48	29	19
Sáliyan	622	311	311
Sédan	8,396	4,037	4,359
Séniyan	142	83	59
Washermen.			
Agasa	1,557	762	795
Dhóbi	7	3	4
Madivála	111	52	59
Vannán	26,880	13,252	13,628
Cotton-cleaners.			
Dúdékula or Pinjári	2	2	...

CASTES, TRIBES AND RACES—*cont.*

Caste, Tribe or Race.	Total.	Males.	Females.
Shepherds and Wool-weavers.			
Golla	6,766	3,327	3,439
Idaiyan or Yádavan	12,764	6,132	6,632
Kurumban	30,782	14,912	15,870
Oil-pressers.			
Gániga	834	411	423
Téli	165	74	91
Vániyan	3,377	1,686	1,691
Potters.			
Kummara or Kumbára	1,058	531	527
Kusavan	17,643	8,686	8,957
Glass-workers and Bangle-makers.			
Valaiyalkáran	210	103	107
Salt-workers.			
Kaduppattan	4	4	...
Uppara	22	9	13
Uppiliyan	22,420	11,008	11,412
Fishermen, Boatmen, Palki-bearers, Cooks, &c.			
Besta	153	76	77
Bóya	358	184	174
Karaiyán	2	2	...
Ódakkáran	284	130	154
Paravan	82	5	47
Savalakkáran	558	283	275
Sembadavan	6,140	2,977	3,163
Siviyan	2,744	1,342	1,402
Toreya	9,477	4,562	4,915
Personal Service.			
Oppanakkáran	35	18	17
Distillers and Toddy-drawers.			
Billava	6	4	2
Ídiga	343	162	181
Íluvan	97	78	19
Shánán	70,655	34,759	35,896
Tiyyan	45	35	10
Butchers.			
Kasáyi	1	1	...
Leather-workers.			
Chakkiliyan	176,608	88,025	88,583
Mádiga	3,757	1,849	1,908

CHAP. II.
CASTE.

CASTES, TRIBES AND RACES—*cont.*

Caste, Tribe or Race.	Total.	Males.	Females.
	Village watchmen.		
Mutrácha	66	32	34
Muttiriyan	2	1	1
Talaiyári	146	69	77
	Scavengers.		
Tóti	459	171	288
	Earth-workers.		
Odde	64,614	31,462	33,152
	Mat-makers, Basket-makers and Cane-splitters.		
Gauriga	147	69	78
Korava or Yerukala	12,417	6,030	6,387
Médara	840	427	413
	Hunters and Fowlers.		
Valaiyan	8,959	4,388	4,571
Védan	1,941	995	946
Villiyan	958	458	500
	Miscellaneous and Disreputable Vagrants.		
Sankara	43	21	22
Súle	8	1	7
	Beggars.		
Ándi	35,160	16,957	18,203
Dásari	272	130	142
Helava	99	46	53
Jógi	106	53	53
Palaniyan	2	1	1
Pambaikkáran	339	190	149
Panisavan	550	266	284
Pic'chaikkáran	8	4	4
Urumikkáran	29	16	13
Víramushti	30	13	17
	Tumblers and Acrobats.		
Dommara	1,077	488	589
Jetti	68	33	35
Kúttádi	68	33	35
Vastád	4	2	2
	Non-Indian Asiatic Races.		
Burmese	206	206	...
Chinese	6	2	4
Moghal	342	176	166
Pársi	3	1	2
Pathán	8,525	4,265	4,260
Saiyad	2,385	1,215	1,170
Sheik	8,486	4,287	4,199

CASTES, TRIBES AND RACES—*cont.*

Caste, Tribe or Race.	Total.	Males.	Females.
Non-Asiatic Races.			
European	234	117	117
Eurasians.			
Eurasian	694	350	344
Christian Converts.			
Native Christian	9,942	4,817	5,125
Titular Names.			
Kavundan	132	69	63
Maniyakkáran	6	4	2
Mudali	462	232	230
Náyakkan	369	198	171
Náyudu	94	50	44
Pillai	41	26	15
Ráyar	2	...	2
Tévan	73	39	34
Territorial, Linguistic and Sectarian Names.			
Bráhmo	7	4	3
Gentu	4	3	1
Gujaráti	1	1	...
Kac'chi	1	1	...
Karnátaka	1	1	...
Lingáyat	15,854	7,711	8,143
Mádhva	1	1	...
Márvádi	2	2	...
Musalman	679	365	314
Nasráni	2	2	...
Pándiyan	41	20	21
Saivan	2,333	1,087	1,246
Sóliyan	1,950	933	1,017
Tamil	50	20	30
Telugu	354	162	192
Vadagalai	1	...	1
Vaishnava	202	101	101
Unclassified Castes.			
Beylie	9	5	4
Padapáchi	3	1	2
Pakkinikkáran	8	4	4
Pakkiri	2	1	1
Pangar	9	4	5
Pattarvandu	3	3	...
Tádi	6	3	3
Vaiyáni	1	1	...
Caste not returned ...	153	102	51
Grand Total ...	**2,004,839**	**981,700**	**1,023,139**

CHAP. II.
LANGUAGE.

Every person enumerated at the census was required to state his mother-tongue. Some difficulty was experienced in compiling the information thus obtained, as in many cases the name of the caste or tribe was given as that of the language also, and it took both time and trouble to find out whether in each case there was or was not a tribal dialect and, if not, to ascertain the real language. Inquiry showed that in most cases there was no separate dialect; in a few instances it was more difficult to decide. For example, Káda, Pulaiya and Małasa were returned as languages, but an examination of vocabularies showed that they did not differ appreciably from Tamil, and they were accordingly treated as synonyms for that language. Sólaga and Úráli were also taken as the equivalent of Tamil, though a few Sólagas are believed to speak Canarese. The numerous entries in the schedules were eventually reduced to the following twenty-eight items :—

Statistics of Mother-tongue returned at the census of 1891.

Language.	Number returning it.	Language.	Number returning it.
Madras Languages.		*Other Indian Languages—cont.*	
Badaga	21	Maráthi	3,064
Hindustáni	21,693	Márvádi	11
Irula	377	*Non-Indian Asiatic Languages.*	
Kanarese	238,114	Arabic	9
Konkani	26	Chinese	3
Kurumba	13	Syriac	2
Lambádi	837	*Non-Asiatic Languages.*	
Malayálam	1,095	English	898
Patnúl	19	French	26
Tamił	1,297,174	Greek	1
Telugu	440,307	Portuguese	55
Tulu	3	Celtic	1
Yerukala or Korava ...	183	Parent-tongue not returned.	445
Other Indian Languages.		TOTAL ...	2,004,839
Bengáli	10		
Burmese	206		
Gujaráti	239		
Hindi	5		
Kac'chi	2		

Tamil is the mother-tongue of 64·72 per cent. of the population, Telugu of 21·97 per cent., Kanarese of 11·88 per cent., and Hindustáni of 1·08 per cent. The distribution by taluks of these four languages is shown below :—

CHAP. II.
LANGUAGE.

Taluk.	Total population.	Number returning			
		Tamil.	Telugu.	Kanarese.	Hindustáni.
Bhaváni	119,869	86,839	22,329	9,295	820
Coimbatore	307,194	149,166	83,424	65,871	5,361
Dhárápuram ...	249,221	197,915	38,166	11,595	1,211
Erode	247,008	208,255	32,135	4,114	2,031
Karúr	211,794	169,570	32,992	7,544	1,403
Kollégál	88,533	3,197	10,908	69,847	3,662
Palladam	270,390	188,025	66,613	13,719	1,663
Pollàchi	183,669	106,437	58,676	16,565	1,639
Satyamangalam ...	184,105	110,721	39,271	30,879	2,622
Udamalpet	143,056	77,049	55,793	8,685	1,281
TOTAL ...	2,004,839	1,297,194	440,307	238,114	21,693

Kanarese is found chiefly in Kollégál, where it is spoken by 78·95 per cent. of the population, and it is also the mother-tongue of 21·45 per cent. of the inhabitants of Coimbatore and of 16·78 per cent. of the people of Satyamangalam. *Telugu* is found throughout the district, but in no taluk is it the predominant language. It is the mother-tongue of nearly all the Kammas, Chakkiliyans, Balijas and Vadugans and of many of the Chettis. Hindustáni is spoken for the most part by foreign Musalmans. The *Malayálam* and *Maráthi*-speaking people are most numerous in the Coimbatore taluk, and all the *Irulas* except 34 are also in that taluk. The total number of Irulas in the district is 7,020 and the majority have returned Tamil as their vernacular. Those who have returned the Irula dialect are, for the most part, natives of the Nílgiri slopes. Similarly *Kurumba* is the dialect of the Kurumba tribe of the hills: the Kurumbas of the plains have mostly returned Kanarese as their mother-tongue, although their speech is a distinct dialect of that language and differs appreciably from the standard. *Patnúl* is the Gujaráti dialect of the Patnúl (silk-weaver) caste, which is only slightly represented in Coimbatore. There are 12,417 *Yerukalas* or Koravas in the district, but only 183 have returned the tribal dialect. Of the 1,465 *Lambádis* 837 have returned Lambádi as their mother-tongue. The *Burmese* are convicts in the Central Jail.

The number of persons who returned European languages is 981, but the returns show only 928 Europeans and Eurasians. The difference indicates that some Europeans or Eurasians have made no return of race and that some natives have returned European languages as their vernacular. Greek was returned by a railway passenger who gave Greece as his birth-place but Eurasian as his race.

CHAPTER III.

AGE, SEX AND MARRIAGE.

CHAP. III. Age.

The general age constitution of the population of the district is shown by the following statement, in which statistics for the presidency as a whole and for England and Wales are added for purposes of comparison:—

Statement showing the number at each age in a total of 10,000 *of each sex.*

Age.	Coimbatore.		Madras Presidency, 1891.	England and Wales, 1881.
	1881.	1891.		
Males.				
0	319	356	330	298
1	233	197	171	270
2	218	369	315	278
3	261	394	352	273
4	274	332	314	272
0– 4	1,305	1,648	1,482	1,391
5–14	2,743	2,421	2,475	2,350
15–24	1,670	1,584	1,648	1,883
25–34	1,732	1,681	1,649	1,441
35–44	1,249	1,265	1,262	1,122
45–54	733	746	792	818
55 and over	568	655	692	995
Total ...	10,000	10,000	10,000	10,000
Females.				
0	314	356	338	282
1	233	201	178	257
2	218	373	327	265
3	277	392	365	260
4	271	317	316	258
0– 4	1,313	1,639	1,524	1,322
5–14	2,546	2,240	2,269	2,232
15–24	1,681	1,640	1,756	1,871
25–34	1,853	1,798	1,750	1,479
35–44	1,198	1,190	1,166	1,142
45–54	777	762	765	855
55 and over	632	731	770	1,099
Total ...	10,000	10,000	10,000	10,000

As explained in the census report, the returns of age are far from accurate, the most noticeable error being an overstatement

CHAP. III. AGE.

of the numbers in the 25–34 period at the expense of those belonging to the 15–24 group. This error is very marked in the figures for Coimbatore.

It will be observed that the proportion of children under five is very high in Coimbatore, and the same circumstance is found in all the famine districts. In 1881, on the other hand, it was very low owing to the mortality of children and the check to the birth-rate caused by the famine. The famine also had a great effect on the old and the proportion of people over 55 was much higher in 1891 than in 1881, while the excess begins so early as 35. The relatively low proportion at 15–24 is due partly to the famine and partly to faulty returns, many persons at this period of life having exaggerated their ages; and owing to these causes the numbers returned as being at the 25–34 period are higher than the actual facts.

Useful and dependent ages.

In the report on the census of 1891 it was assumed that all males between the ages of 15 and 59 and all females between 15 and 44 were, as a rule, capable of earning their own living and these periods were accordingly taken to be what is called the useful lifetime. On this basis it is found that 54·71 per cent. of the males and 46·28 per cent. of the females of Coimbatore are at the useful ages. In other words, about one-half of the population of the district is supported by the other half. For the presidency exclusive of the Agency Tracts, the proportions are 55·26 per cent. for males and 46·64 per cent. for females.

SEX.

The population shows a preponderance of females, the proportion being 1,042 females to 1,000 of the opposite sex. In 1881 the ratio was 1,054 to 1,000. The following statement gives the proportion at different ages for Coimbatore and the presidency as a whole exclusive of the Agency Tracts:—

Age.	Number of females per 1,000 males.		Age.	Number of females per 1,000 males.	
	Coimbatore.	Presidency.		Coimbatore.	Presidency.
0	**1,044**	1,048	25–29	**1,126**	1,082
1	**1,061**	1,065	30–34	**1,103**	1,098
2	**1,055**	1,063	35–39	**928**	876
3	**1,035**	1,059	40–44	**1,037**	1,019
4	**997**	1,027	45–49	**941**	856
0– 4	**1,037**	1,051	50–54	**1,194**	1,107
5– 9	**999**	991	55–59 ...	**1,018**	907
10–14	**916**	873	60 and over ...	**1,222**	1,220
15–19	**922**	965	All ages ..	**1,042**	1,025
20–24	**1,244**	1,213			

CHAP. III.
SEX.

In this connection the marginal statement showing the number of male births to 1,000 female births is interesting. It will be seen that on an average there are nearly 5 per cent. more boys than girls born, yet in the first year of life the census shows that the girls appreciably outnumber the boys. This proves that the infant mortality is much higher among males than females, notwithstanding the greater value attached to male life in this country. It is possible that the registration of births is more defective in the case of female than of male children, but the error due to this cause cannot be great, as the excess of male births is not large in comparison with the facts found in other districts and in European countries. The high proportion of females at 60 and over is in accordance with what is generally observed in all countries. The excessive predominance at the 20–24 period is probably due in part to an exaggeration in the age of females under 20.

Year.	Male births to 1,000 female births.
1882	1,041
1883	1,041
1884	1,047
1885	1,060
1886	1,042
1887	1,039
1888	1,070
1889	1,042
Mean	1,049

The ratio for each of the three principal religions is shown in the marginal table. The great excess of females among Musalmans is remarkable: it is chiefly due to the predominance of females found in the Karúr taluk, where there are 1,537 females to 1,000 of the opposite sex. The age returns show that this anomalous ratio is found almost entirely at the working period of life, and it is no doubt due to the absence of adult males who have temporarily migrated to other districts. Again in the Karúr taluk there are 2,141 Musalman wives to 1,099 husbands of that religion, which is another proof of the absence of adult males for polygamy is not greatly practised amongst Musalmans. Females are relatively more numerous among the urban than among the rural population both in Coimbatore and in the presidency generally. In Coimbatore the number of females per 1,000 males is 1,070 for the urban and 1,041 for the rural population; for the presidency as a whole the ratios are 1,047 and 1,020 to 1,000 respectively.

Religion.	Females per 1,000 males.
Hindus	1,041
Musalmans ...	1,107
Christians ...	1,068

The statements appended to this chapter show the civil or conjugal condition of the population of each taluk, and the subjoined table affords information for the district as a whole as to the proportion of unmarried, married and widowed at each principal age-period and also as to the age-constitution of those in each conjugal condition. The figures for the whole presidency are added for purposes of comparison :—

Distribution by Civil Condition of 10,000 persons of each sex and age.

		All ages.			0–14.			15–24.		
—	Sex.	Unmarried.	Married.	Widowed.	Unmarried.	Married.	Widowed.	Unmarried.	Married.	Widowed.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Coimbatore ...	Males ...	5,481	4,189	330	9,919	80	1	6,945	3,005	50
	Females ...	4,039	4,199	1,762	9,570	421	9	1,784	7,884	332
Presidency ...	Males ...	5,387	4,269	344	9,846	150	4	6,891	3,049	60
	Females ...	3,723	4,361	1,916	8,994	974	32	1,255	8,244	501

		25–39.			40–49.			50 and over.		
—	Sex	Unmarried.	Married.	Widowed.	Unmarried.	Married.	Widowed.	Unmarried.	Married.	Widowed.
		12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
Coimbatore ...	Males ...	1,300	8,449	251	263	9,058	679	151	7,933	1,916
	Females ...	97	8,194	1,709	56	5,355	4,589	41	2,464	7,495
Presidency ...	Males ...	1,360	8,368	272	310	9,041	649	192	7,991	1,817
	Females ...	241	7,931	1,828	181	5,181	4,638	136	2,047	7,817

Distribution by Age of 10,000 persons of each sex in each Civil Condition.

—	Sex.	All Civil Conditions.					Unmarried.				
		0–14.	15–24.	25–39.	40–49.	50 and over.	0–14.	15–24.	25–39.	40–49.	50 and over.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Coimbatore ...	Males ...	4,069	1,584	2,334	994	1,019	7,362	2,008	554	48	28
	Females ...	3,881	1,639	2,380	954	1,146	9,194	724	57	13	12
Presidency ...	Males ...	3,956	1,649	2,240	1,035	1,120	7,227	2,108	565	60	40
	Females ...	3,793	1,756	2,255	966	1,230	9,170	592	146	47	45

—	Sex.	Married.					Widowed.				
		0–14.	15–24.	25–39.	40–49.	50 and over.	0–14.	15–24.	25–39.	40–49.	50 and over.
		13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
Coimbatore ...	Males ...	78	1,137	4,708	2,149	1,928	14	241	1,775	2,048	5,922
	Females ...	389	3,079	4,643	1,216	673	20	309	2,309	2,485	4,877
Presidency ...	Males ...	139	1,178	4,393	2,193	2,097	50	287	1,778	1,957	5,928
	Females ...	848	3,322	4,104	1,148	578	63	458	2,145	2,331	5,003

Of the male population 55 per cent. are single, 42 per cent. are married and 3 per cent. are widowers.

The proportion of unmarried is higher than that for the presidency, but this is chiefly due to the fact that the proportion at the youthful ages is higher than that for the province as a whole; there is little evidence that marriage takes place later in life. The proportion of men over 25 who are still unmarried is small.

Of the female population 40 per cent. are single, 42 per cent. married and 18 per cent. widows. Comparatively few girls appear to be married before fifteen, but the returns cannot be altogether trusted here as a number of girls under fifteen have been returned as older than they really are and many of the wives who appear as over fifteen are undoubtedly under that age. It is satisfactory to note that the proportion of widows is lower than for the presidency generally, and that among the widows actually found there are relatively fewer young widows. The proportion of widows, and of young widows also, is however a high one when compared with European countries, and even with other parts of India. There are about two widows to every five wives and rather more than five widows to every widower.

Taking the child-bearing period as 15–39 there are 332,000 wives at the fertile ages. In England there are 290 births to each thousand wives of child-bearing age, and the proportion in India is probably not less than this. This gives 96,300 births per annum, or a birth-rate of rather over 48 per mille.

There are 1,045 wives to every 1,000 husbands, which is about the proportion for the presidency. Some of this excess of wives is due to the absence of husbands and the rest to polygamy. In the case of Musalmans there are 1,134 wives to 1,000 husbands, but the total numbers are small and, as already stated, many Musalman husbands, especially in the Karúr taluk, must be absent from their homes.

Statement showing the Ages of the people.

Taluk.	Total population.			Age period.									
				Under 1 year.		1 year.		2 years.		3 years.		4 years.	
	Total.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Bhaváni	**119,869**	59,034	60,835	2,353	2,314	1,031	1,199	2,422	2,581	2,380	2,620	2,096	2,132
Coimbatore	**307,194**	150,284	156,910	5,162	5,444	2,869	3,098	5,118	5,429	5,703	5,931	4,381	4,357
Dhárápuram	**249,221**	122,730	126,491	4,505	4,726	2,681	2,817	4,832	4,954	5,127	5,298	4,285	4,302
Erode	**247,008**	122,274	124,734	4,225	4,544	2,643	2,729	4,426	4,723	4,864	5,060	4,286	4,284
Karúr	**211,794**	102,568	109,226	3,705	3,837	1,916	1,969	3,880	4,078	4,199	4,309	3,675	3,644
Kollégál	**88,533**	43,580	44,953	1,182	1,232	632	696	1,317	1,411	1,432	1,612	1,261	1,289
Palladam	**270,390**	132,337	138,053	4,870	4,994	2,862	2,873	4,859	5,049	5,192	5,442	4,433	4,432
Polláchi	**183,669**	89,259	94,410	3,095	3,190	1,686	1,848	3,361	3,708	3,358	3,452	2,752	2,805
Satyamangalam	**184,105**	90,288	93,817	3,234	3,493	1,734	1,873	3,414	3,525	3,705	3,636	3,175	2,969
Udamalpet	**143,056**	69,346	73,710	2,562	2,654	1,320	1,459	2,570	2,746	2,761	2,718	2,233	2,264
Total ...	**2,004,839**	**981,700**	**1,023,139**	**34,893**	**36,428**	**19,374**	**20,561**	**36,199**	**38,204**	**38,721**	**40,078**	**32,577**	**32,478**

Statement showing the Ages of the people—cont.

Taluk.	Age period—*cont.*													
	Total 0–4.		5–9.		10–14.		15–19.		20–24.		25–29.		30–34.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28
Bhaváni	10,282	10,846	8,580	8,508	5,804	5,090	4,686	4,032	4,715	5,821	5,633	6,163	4,943	5,294
Coimbatore	23,233	24,259	20,227	20,191	16,784	15,049	13,489	12,867	12,290	14,473	12,842	14,327	11,586	12,643
Dhárápuram	21,430	22,097	17,827	17,647	11,822	11,004	9,354	8,569	9,001	11,252	10,645	12,110	9,838	10,918
Erode	20,444	21,340	17,636	17,821	11,684	10,750	9,413	7,883	9,066	11,240	11,076	12,494	9,932	10,532
Karúr	17,375	17,837	15,051	15,384	10,441	9,597	7,727	7,444	7,249	9,632	8,847	10,574	8,292	9,576
Kollégál	5,824	6,240	6,063	6,149	4,463	3,919	3,510	3,578	3,691	4,589	3,999	4,268	3,915	4,125
Palladam	22,216	22,790	18,462	18,299	13,291	12,656	10,735	9,647	9,917	12,290	11,180	12,624	9,932	11,510
Pollúchi	14,252	15,003	11,691	11,757	10,018	9,237	7,933	7,269	7,029	8,853	7,823	8,806	6,913	7,752
Satyamangalam	15,262	15,496	12,963	12,819	8,697	7,928	7,454	6,955	7,209	9,088	8,614	9,396	7,651	8,176
Udamalpet	11,446	11,841	9,226	9,140	6,880	6,259	5,701	5,550	5,359	6,742	5,929	6,725	5,393	5,934
TOTAL ...	161,764	167,749	137,726	137,715	99,884	91,489	80,002	73,794	75,526	93,980	86,588	97,487	78,395	86,460

Statement showing the Ages of the people—cont.

Taluk.	Age period—*cont.*													
	35-39.		40-44.		45-49.		50-54.		55-59.		60 and over.		Not stated.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males	Females.
	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42
Bhaváni	3,705	3,391	3,646	3,747	2,140	1,922	1,992	2,366	982	966	1,913	2,680	13	9
Coimbatore	9,705	8,855	8,864	9,211	5,891	5,889	5,387	6,736	2,971	3,210	6,999	9,185	16	15
Dhárápuram	7,919	7,327	7,590	7,551	4,621	4,108	4,381	4,992	2,406	2,206	5,879	6,698	17	12
Erode	8,207	7,240	7,358	7,384	4,561	4,152	4,422	5,123	2,397	2,306	6,067	6,452	11	17
Karúr	6,825	6,616	6,328	6,784	3,898	3,723	3,743	4,564	1,949	1,892	4,838	5,596	5	7
Kollégál	2,967	2,369	2,954	3,043	1,654	1,335	1,906	2,144	803	739	1,819	2,442	12	13
Palladam	8,544	8,029	7,926	8,274	5,233	4,850	4,869	5,829	2,993	3,059	7,025	8,181	14	15
Polláchi	5,821	5,658	5,284	5,720	3,512	3,518	3,179	3,914	1,742	1,916	4,050	5,001	12	6
Satyamangalam	5,878	5,452	5,676	5,712	3,190	3,054	3,005	3,678	1,443	1,649	3,236	4,403	10	11
Udamalpet	4,589	4,575	4,299	4,734	2,928	2,861	2,754	3,218	1,487	1,575	3,353	4,555	2	1
TOTAL ...	64,160	59,512	59,925	62,160	37,628	35,412	35,638	42,564	19,173	19,518	45,179	55,193	112	106

Statement showing the Number of Unmarried according to the census of 1891.

Taluk.	All ages.			0–14.		15–24.		25–39.		40–49.		50 and over.		Not stated.	
	Total.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
Bhaváni	**58,645**	33,464	25,181	24,410	23,413	6,608	1,474	2,183	208	176	47	78	32	9	7
Coimbatore	**142,005**	80,864	61,141	59,751	56,676	17,301	4,055	3,353	279	298	60	151	63	10	8
Dhárápuram ...	**123,514**	68,724	54,790	50,672	49,322	13,275	5,006	4,196	298	360	76	213	82	8	6
Erode	**120,448**	68,276	52,172	49,372	48,153	13,542	3,611	4,683	280	423	63	251	58	5	7
Karúr	**102,016**	57,209	44,807	42,494	41,115	10,721	3,386	3,534	215	280	49	175	38	5	4
Kollégál	**38,862**	22,848	16,014	16,157	14,558	4,776	932	1,594	384	174	89	136	43	11	8
Palladam	**127,250**	71,547	55,703	53,514	51,441	14,213	3,963	3,371	193	265	47	177	53	7	6
Polláchi	**86,897**	48,696	38,201	35,705	34,711	10,376	3,223	2,275	173	196	50	133	39	11	5
Satyamangalam ...	**85,920**	49,328	36,592	36,554	34,179	9,675	2,071	2,756	243	227	44	111	49	5	6
Udamalpet	**65,558**	37,003	28,555	27,397	26,210	7,506	2,204	1,850	94	162	22	88	24	...	1
TOTAL ...	**951,115**	**537,959**	**413,156**	**396,026**	**379,778**	**107,993**	**29,925**	**29,795**	**2,367**	**2,561**	**547**	**1,513**	**481**	**71**	**58**

Statement showing the Number of Married according to the census of 1891.

Taluk.	All ages.			0-14.		15-24.		25-39.		40-49.		50 and over.		Not stated.	
	Total.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
Bhaváni	**48,174**	23,672	24,502	237	994	2,738	8,044	11,672	11,773	5,183	2,618	3,839	1,071	3	2
Coimbatore	**131,313**	64,467	66,846	478	2,748	8,359	22,321	29,863	29,120	13,417	8,105	12,347	4,548	3	4
Dhárápuram ...	**102,951**	50,382	52,569	399	1,405	5,012	14,352	23,634	25,879	11,156	6,813	10,174	4,117	7	3
Erode	**101,753**	49,986	51,767	374	1,712	4,865	14,970	23,941	24,868	10,723	6,309	10,081	3,904	2	4
Karúr	**87,760**	42,270	45,490	362	1,665	4,184	13,158	19,914	22,170	9,341	5,570	8,469	2,925	...	2
Kollégál	**38,268**	19,107	19,161	180	1,699	2,369	6,785	8,949	7,936	4,068	1,914	3,540	825	1	2
Palladam	**115,255**	56,176	59,079	434	2,232	6,335	17,331	25,578	27,044	12,042	7,634	11,782	4,834	5	4
Polláchi	**76,895**	37,481	39,414	240	1,247	4,501	12,340	17,722	18,285	7,950	4,961	7,068	2,580	...	1
Satyamangalam ...	**76,409**	37,679	38,730	353	2,009	4,878	13,196	18,631	17,802	7,895	3,940	5,917	1,780	5	3
Udamalpet	**61,959**	29,971	31,988	153	1,006	3,495	9,749	13,663	14,548	6,576	4,376	6,082	2,309	2	...
TOTAL ...	**840,737**	**411,191**	**429,546**	**3,210**	**16,717**	**46,736**	**132,246**	**193,567**	**199,425**	**88,351**	**52,240**	**79,299**	**28,893**	**28**	**25**

Statement showing the Number of Widowed according to the census of 1891.

Taluk.	All ages.			0–14.		15–24.		25–39.		40–49.		50 and over.		Not stated.	
	Total.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
Bhaváni	12,985	1,871	11,114	5	22	51	329	422	2,855	426	3,001	967	4,907	...	...
Coimbatore	33,809	4,926	28,883	2	54	116	960	911	6,419	1,037	6,931	2,858	14,516	2	3
Dhárápuram ...	22,722	3,607	19,115	3	18	66	460	570	4,176	692	4,770	2,275	9,690	1	1
Erode	24,754	3,988	20,766	4	32	72	538	589	5,110	769	5,164	2,550	9,917	4	5
Karúr	22,002	3,077	18,925	5	36	69	531	514	4,381	604	4,887	1,885	9,089	...	1
Kollégál	11,332	1,595	9,737	4	41	51	441	325	2,430	366	2,369	849	4,453	...	3
Palladam	27,821	4,586	23,235	3	53	103	643	704	4,918	849	5,437	2,925	12,179	2	5
Polláchi	19,850	3,073	16,777	13	34	85	555	557	3,752	649	4,224	1,769	8,212	...	...
Satyamangalam ...	21,737	3,260	18,477	5	52	108	772	751	4,975	744	4,780	1,652	7,896	...	2
Udamalpet	15,524	2,368	13,156	2	21	58	338	397	2,589	488	3,196	1,423	7,012	...	...
TOTAL ...	212,536	32,351	180,185	46	363	779	5,567	5,740	41,605	6,624	44,759	19,153	87,871	9	20

Statement showing the Number of Persons who did not return their Civil Condition according to the census of 1891.

Taluk.	All ages.			0–14.		15–24.		25–39.		40–49.		50 and over.		Not stated.	
	Total.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
Bhaváni	65	27	38	14	15	4	6	4	12	1	3	3	2	1	...
Coimbatore	67	27	40	13	21	3	4	6	7	3	4	1	4	1	...
Dhárápuram ...	34	17	17	5	3	2	3	2	2	3	...	4	7	1	2
Erode	53	24	29	14	14	...	4	2	8	4	...	4	2	...	1
Karúr	16	12	4	6	2	2	1	2	...	1	1	1	...	...	...
Kollégál	71	30	41	9	10	5	9	13	12	...	6	3	4	...	...
Palladam	64	28	36	18	19	1	...	3	8	3	6	3	3	...	...
Polláchi	27	9	18	3	5	...	4	3	6	1	3	1	...	1	...
Satyamangalam ...	39	21	18	10	3	2	4	5	4	...	2	4	5	...	...
Udamalpet	15	4	11	...	3	1	1	1	3	1	1	1	3	...	...
TOTAL ...	451	199	252	92	95	20	36	41	62	17	26	25	30	4	3

CHAPTER IV.

RAINFALL, SEASONS AND PRICES.

CHAP. IV.
RAINFALL.

THE statements appended to this section show the rainfall registered at each recording station for a series of years. The average district rainfall for the years 1870–89 is 25·65 inches, of which 5·16 fall in April and May (kár rains), 8·30 in the south-west monsoon from June to September and 12·19 in the north-east monsoon from October to March; of this, however, the January to March showers, measuring 0·93 inches, are agriculturally useless except at the beginning of January. The kár and north-east rains are usually a good deal in excess one year and below the average in the next year. The maximum recorded district average since 1870 is 33·20 inches in 1880, and the minimum 17·48 inches in 1876. Compared with the surrounding districts, the figures are as follows:—

	INCHES.
Coimbatore	25·65
Madura	29·82
Salem	31·46
Trichinopoly	34·02
Malabar	114·51

Coimbatore had for the above period the lowest rainfall of any district, Bellary and Anantapur alone excepted, the next lowest being Tinnevelly with 26·90 inches. During that period rain fell on an average on 42 days per year, or the same as in Kurnool, Cuddapah and Madura. Many of the falls, however, must have been mere showers or drizzles of no value whatever in this tropical and dry district.

A mere table of rainfall is, however, often misleading; the intervals between the falls and the amount of each fall must be known; locality, soil and crops must be considered for a complete agricultural diagnosis in any given year, and, speaking generally, a monthly table for a whole district is not of much value; the circumstances of each taluk differ, and a rainfall table must therefore be at least by taluks. Statistics of monthly rainfall for each

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recording station are appended, and the subjoined abstract gives the average rainfall for each recording station at the different seasons of the year:—

Statement of Average Rainfall at the different seasons of the year.

Recording stations.	Kár.	South-west monsoon.	North-east monsoon.	Total.
Kollégál	7·25	15·75	11·90	**34·90**
Tálavádi and Gópichetti-pálaiyam	7·11	9·60	13·11	**29·82**
Satyamangalam	4·54	8·45	13·92	**26·91**
Bhaváni	5·03	11·05	12·50	**28·58**
Erode	5·31	9·71	11·62	**26·64**
Karúr	5·06	9·68	11·97	**26·71**
Dhárápuram	4·44	3·55	11·77	**19·76**
Udamalpet	4·85	3·44	13·70	**21·99**
Palladam	4·55	4·00	11·78	**20·33**
Coimbatore	4·26	5·82	11·65	**21·73**
Polláchi	6·11	12·96	11·14	**30·21**
DISTRICT AVERAGE ...	**5·16**	**8·30**	**12·19**	**25·65**

NOTE.—Kár = April and May.
South-west monsoon = June to September.
North-east monsoon = October to March.

The rainfall is lowest in Dhárápuram, and it is also precarious in Palladam. The fall is heaviest in the north and extreme south-west of the district. In the tracts with scanty rainfall, the north-east monsoon brings in from two to four times the quantity of rain received during the other monsoon.

Average Rainfall of the Coimbatore district in inches.

Years.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.	Total.
1870	0·44	...	0·39	0·84	1·50	3·12	1·68	3·07	3·08	4·95	2·94	0·62	**22·63**
1871	0·78	1·01	1·92	1·80	3·55	1·20	1·43	1·64	2·40	5·02	8·99	0·16	**29·90**
1872	...	0·46	...	1·64	3·10	3·77	2·43	2·64	4·42	1·92	4·49	1·37	**26·24**
1873	...	1·99	0·01	3·57	3·10	0·73	1·15	2·55	1·98	7·70	1·50	0·19	**24·47**
1874	0·05	0·33	0·14	1·47	2·79	1·76	2·32	2·06	2·97	4·94	4·41	0·77	**24·01**
1875	0·09	...	0·67	2·48	3·51	1·88	0·96	1·18	1·30	8·80	1·98	0·28	**23·13**
1876	...	...	0·41	1·22	4·99	0·60	1·56	2·96	2·65	2·12	0·83	0·14	**17·48**
1877	...	0·01	0·58	1·06	2·32	2·40	0·39	0·64	5·85	9·26	4·00	3·75	**30·26**
1878	0·13	...	0·01	2·06	3·55	1·59	2·85	3·99	3·18	4·90	2·44	0·77	**25·47**
1879	0·15	0·33	1·88	0·61	3·53	0·65	4·52	1·20	3·20	4·30	1·81	0·22	**22·40**
1880	0·14	...	0·08	3·21	3·81	0·98	0·94	3·18	1·68	7·33	10·94	0·91	**33·20**
1881	0·01	...	0·15	0·39	4·08	0·49	0·30	2·45	2·57	2·71	4·70	1·40	**19·25**
1882	0·99	...	0·30	1·30	5·99	2·14	2·44	3·33	1·79	7·60	5·07	0·56	**31·51**
1883	0·01	...	0·33	1·07	4·03	0·73	1·50	4·84	0·96	9·94	5·25	2·55	**31·21**
1884	0·49	...	0·73	0·54	2·14	1·50	0·33	1·14	0·61	8·76	6·21	2·49	**24·94**
1885	...	...	0·50	0·34	2·36	3·42	0·35	0·90	3·47	10·94	1·42	4·78	**28·48**
1886	0·02	...	0·34	0·49	6·53	1·16	3·36	3·45	3·87	2·22	2·77	0·36	**24·57**
1887	0·04	0·25	1·19	2·86	2·62	1·40	0·60	2·43	1·48	7·32	4·11	3·08	**27·38**
1888	0·02	...	0·21	1·74	3·43	0·95	0·49	0·47	3·99	3·90	4·03	0·62	**19·85**
1889	0·09	...	0·69	4·66	2·90	1·44	2·23	1·86	5·01	4·81	1·76	1·25	**26·70**
AVERAGE—1870–89.	**0·18**	**0·22**	**0·53**	**1·67**	**3·49**	**1·60**	**1·59**	**2·30**	**2·81**	**5·97**	**3·98**	**1·31**	**25·65**
1890	0·22	0·01	1·31	3·31	3·31	1·02	0·48	2·37	1·14	8·89	2·51	0·46	**25·03**
1891	0·16	1·43	0·60	1·71	1·86	2·18	0·60	0·86	0·91	8·72	1·94	1·30	**22·27**
1892	...	0·90	0·12	2·45	3·99	2·09	1·23	3·93	0·79	4·83	0·41	0·79	**21·53**
1893	0·11	0·86	2·91	2·35	2·16	3·52	1·96	0·96	1·26	6·78	9·30	0·01	**32·18**
1894	0·03	0·63	0·78	2·22	3·45	0·90	0·91	3·09	1·77	7·16	1·89	0·02	**22·85**

Average Number of Wet days.

Years.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.	Total.
1870	1	...	...	2	3	6	5	6	5	7	5	2	**42**
1871	1	1	2	4	5	2	3	3	4	7	8	...	**40**
1872	...	1	...	2	4	5	4	4	7	4	9	4	**44**
1873	...	2	...	5	4	3	2	5	4	11	2	1	**39**
1874	...	1	1	2	5	5	6	3	4	7	7	1	**42**
1875	...	...	1	3	5	3	3	2	3	12	4	1	**37**
1876	...	...	1	3	7	2	4	4	4	3	2	...	**30**
1877	...	...	1	2	4	4	2	2	8	12	6	5	**46**
1878	...	...	...	2	5	4	6	7	6	7	4	2	**43**
1879	...	1	3	2	5	2	6	3	5	7	2	1	**37**
1880	...	...	...	5	7	3	4	6	4	11	13	2	**55**
1881	...	...	1	1	7	2	1	5	4	4	8	3	**36**
1882	2	...	1	2	9	5	7	6	4	9	9	1	**55**
1883	...	...	1	2	6	3	4	7	2	13	8	2	**48**
1884	1	...	1	1	5	3	1	3	2	10	9	4	**40**
1885	...	...	1	1	4	7	2	3	4	12	3	6	**43**
1886	...	...	1	1	8	3	6	6	8	4	4	1	**42**
1887	...	...	2	3	5	4	2	4	3	10	7	5	**45**
1888	...	...	...	3	6	2	1	2	6	7	8	2	**37**
1889	...	...	1	4	5	3	4	4	8	7	3	3	**42**
AVERAGE—1870–89.	...	...	**1**	**3**	**5**	**4**	**4**	**4**	**5**	**8**	**6**	**2**	**42**
1890	1	...	2	5	6	2	3	5	3	9	5	1	**42**
1891	...	3	1	2	3	3	2	2	2	12	4	3	**37**
1892	...	1	...	5	7	5	3	7	2	8	1	2	**41**
1893	...	1	3	4	5	7	4	2	2	10	11	...	**49**
1894	...	1	1	4	6	2	2	6	4	10	4	...	**40**

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RAINFALL.

Statement of Rainfall at different stations in inches.

Recording stations.	Years.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.	Total.
Kollégál.	1870 ...	...	...	...	1·00	3·00	3·60	3·47	8·45	4·90	6·40	...	...	**30·82**
	1871 ...	0·05	..	2·05	0·39	8·40	...	2·20	5·00	5·60	9·60	3·02	...	**36·31**
	1872 ...	...	0·80	...	0·30	5·20	5·40	4·20	8·00	6·68	4·71	2·10	1·10	**38·49**
	1873 ...	...	...	...	7·30	3·90	0·14	...	6·00	5·10	12·84	0·04	0·50	**35·82**
	1874 ...	...	...	...	0·70	6·90	1·40	3·67	3·80	6·80	11·71	3·00	...	**37·98**
	1875 ...	...	...	0·50	0·90	4·70	3·04	0·50	2·07	5·66	7·91	0·40	...	**25·68**
	1876 ...	...	...	2·05	0·95	7·54	0·76	2·43	9·37	7·32	1·55	...	...	**31·97**
	1877 ...	...	...	1·70	1·75	6·10	1·75	0·48	...	11·12	12·90	2·22	1·20	**39·22**
	1878 ...	...	...	0·10	1·00	5·72	2·55	4·90	5·29	7·20	12·52	1·67	0·04	**40·99**
	1879 ...	0·65	0·05	0·95	1·40	3·35	0·35	7·92	0·90	8·83	9·32	2·07	...	**35·79**
	1880 ...	0·40	...	0·84	2·25	9·70	1·75	1·70	9·16	3·60	12·19	5·30	0·30	**47·19**
	1881 ...	...	...	0·20	2·70	6·30	1·10	0·20	3·95	7·50	0·20	4·50	0·20	**26·85**
	1882 ...	2·70	...	...	0·07	7·30	1·92	3·02	7·90	5·03	6·50	7·50	...	**41·94**
	1883 ...	...	...	0·95	2·30	7·00	0·80	2·00	8·15	1·30	9·20	2·30	5·00	**39·00**
	1884 ...	...	...	0·20	1·10	4·40	3·15	0·58	3·36	2·88	4·57	2·67	1·10	**24·01**
	1885 ...	...	...	1·00	...	4·50	3·50	...	0·90	3·90	12·65	1·45	3·20	**31·10**
	1886 ...	...	...	0·50	0·30	9·60	2·80	6·50	9·02	8·40	2·90	1·90	...	**41·92**
	1887 ...	...	...	0·70	1·80	4·83	2·20	0·30	3·00	3·25	10·17	5·70	1·10	**33·05**
	1888 ...	...	...	...	1·80	3·54	2·10	0·65	1·10	5·90	0·75	2·97	...	**18·81**
	1889 ...	...	...	2·50	2·49	2·42	4·25	5·52	4·18	11·65	7·00	0·40	0·70	**41·11**
	AVERAGE— 1870–89.	**0·19**	**0·04**	**0·71**	**1·53**	**5·72**	**2·13**	**2·51**	**4·98**	**6·13**	**7·78**	**2·46**	**0·72**	**34·90**
	1890 ...	...	...	0·09	6·49	5·98	1·30	1·05	2·90	2·15	8·10	6·85	0·40	**35·31**
	1891 ...	...	...	2·30	3·33	1·02	4·89	1·17	0·25	0·40	5·34	...	0·12	**18·82**
	1892 ...	...	...	...	1·32	7·59	6·40	1·57	8·76	1·36	4·16	...	0·14	**31·30**
	1893 ...	0·07	2·19	6·35	1·80	3·02	3·49	4·36	0·34	2·14	12·26	4·62	...	**40·64**
	1894 ...	...	...	2·11	3·59	6·01	0·91	1·96	6·75	2·54	7·29	2·20	0·08	**33·44**
Tálavádi and Gópichettipálaiyam.	1883 ...	...	...	1·29	1·85	5·35	0·40	1·30	4·20	1·30	9·61	5·75	3·70	**34·75**
	1884 ...	...	...	...	0·70	2·45	0·90	...	0·01	0·20	7·70	2·20	0·75	**14·91**
	1885 ...	...	...	0·60	2·01	5·98	3·26	0·12	0·40	4·69	12·45	2·09	1·53	**33·13**
	1886 ...	...	...	0·80	2·12	8·23	1·04	3·87	6·46	4·05	1·45	1·65	0·40	**30·07**
	1887 ...	...	...	1·40	1·78	3·30	3·32	...	2·00	2·95	9·90	5·70	0·60	**30·95**
	1888 ...	...	...	...	3·40	2·10	0·78	...	0·65	8·90	1·36	4·17	0·10	**21·46**
	1889 ...	0·60	...	3·60	4·70	5·80	1·98	2·15	2·80	9·45	8·95	1·20	2·25	**43·48**
	AVERAGE— 1883–89.	**0·09**	...	**1·10**	**2·37**	**4·74**	**1·67**	**1·06**	**2·36**	**4·51**	**7·34**	**3·25**	**1·33**	**29·82**
	1890 ...	...	...	0·80	1·65	2·55	* 4·04	0·60	1·27	1·30	2·90	1·45	1·00	**17·56**
	1891 ...	...	0·95	1·85	1·05	1·25	0·92	0·50	2·60	1·60	7·90	3·30	4·06	**25·98**
	1892 ...	...	0·44	0·21	2·85	5·98	2·83	0·47	6·85	1·93	7·54	...	0·20	**29·30**
	1893 ...	...	1·30	5·53	4·30	1·34	4·57	1·48	1·79	3·09	12·67	6·91	...	**42·98**
	1894 ...	..	0·42	0·32	1·65	5·63	0·85	1·53	2·84	2·48	10·80	2·24	...	**28·76**

* Gópichettipálaiyam station from June 1890.

Number of Wet days.

Recording stations.	Years.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.	Total.
Kollégál.	1870	...	...	...	1	4	3	4	7	4	7	...	...	**30**
	1871	1	...	1	2	8	...	2	7	6	9	2	...	**38**
	1872	...	1	...	2	4	6	5	6	9	5	5	3	**46**
	1873	...	...	...	5	3	...	...	10	6	11	...	1	**36**
	1874	...	...	...	2	9	3	5	5	6	9	5	...	**44**
	1875	...	...	1	2	4	3	2	4	6	12	1	...	**35**
	1876	...	...	1	3	8	4	8	10	5	2	...	...	**41**
	1877	...	...	3	4	5	5	1	...	14	15	3	2	**52**
	1878	...	...	1	1	5	5	9	14	10	8	2	...	**55**
	1879	2	...	4	5	8	1	11	4	9	10	4	...	**58**
	1880	1	...	2	6	15	4	8	12	8	15	11	1	**83**
	1881	...	...	2	3	10	3	2	10	6	2	9	1	**48**
	1882	2	...	...	...	12	4	9	10	11	10	12	...	**70**
	1883	...	...	3	3	10	2	6	11	3	15	6	3	**62**
	1884	...	...	1	2	9	5	1	4	4	11	3	2	**42**
	1885	...	...	1	...	6	3	...	4	5	13	2	5	**39**
	1886	...	...	2	2	13	4	9	9	13	5	4	...	**61**
	1887	...	...	1	5	9	7	1	7	6	11	6	2	**55**
	1888	...	...	...	5	6	4	1	2	10	2	10	...	**40**
	1889	...	...	1	4	4	7	8	6	15	10	1	3	**59**
	AVERAGE—1870–89.	...	...	**1**	**3**	**8**	**4**	**5**	**7**	**8**	**9**	**4**	**1**	**50**
	1890	...	...	1	2	6	2	1	9	6	11	8	...	**46**
	1891	...	2	...	4	4	6	7	2	2	10	...	...	**37**
	1892	...	...	...	5	11	12	5	12	4	7	...	1	**57**
	1893	...	3	3	5	6	8	8	2	5	17	8	...	**65**
	1894	...	...	3	5	9	1	4	12	6	12	2	...	**54**
Tálavádi and Gópichettipálaiyam.	1883	No record.												
	1884													
	1885													
	1886	...	...	1	2	10	4	8	7	6	4	4	1	**47**
	1887	...	...	2	4	9	10	...	4	6	13	10	2	**60**
	1888	...	...	...	5	5	4	...	2	12	6	9	1	**44**
	1889	1	...	4	8	7	6	7	8	13	13	4	3	**74**
	AVERAGE—1886–89.	...	...	**2**	**5**	**8**	**6**	**4**	**5**	**9**	**9**	**7**	**1**	**56**
	1890	...	...	3	5	5	3	4	5	2	10	6	2	**45**
	1891	...	3	1	3	2	4	1	3	2	9	4	6	**38**
	1892	...	2	1	5	9	7	2	9	3	12	...	1	**51**
	1893	...	3	5	6	3	10	5	3	3	11	9	...	**58**
	1894	...	1	1	3	10	1	4	8	7	8	4	...	**47**

CHAP. IV.
RAINFALL.

Statement of Rainfall at different stations in inches—cont.

Recording stations.	Years.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.	Total.
Méttuppálaiyam.	1883	0·10	...	0·15	2·65	7·43	...	1·58	4·15	0·55	16·54	5·60	4·95	**43·70**
	1884	0·35	...	...	...	1·35	0·50	...	0·82	0·40	11·32	11·01	1·90	**27·65**
	1885	...	...	...	...	2·00	3·40	...	...	5·00	7·73	2·53	5·27	**25·93**
	1886	..	...	...	0·65	4·50	0·63	4·05	0·85	2·30	6·22	6·70	...	**25·90**
	1887	0·64	3·00	0·70	3·75	1·95	1·50	...	2·70	0·20	7·38	2·90	5·50	**30·22**
	1888	0·10	0·05	...	1·00	5·50	0·15	0·15	0·10	2·45	8·50	6·65	...	**24·65**
	1889	...	...	1·00	2·00	3·30	2·20	3·40	1·30	3·00	4·00	2·88	1·65	**24·73**
	1890	0·20	0·10	2·25	4·66	3·27	0·42	0·64	1·36	0·41	6·70	1·24	2·85	**24·10**
	1891	1·64	3·00	2·38	4·60	1·30	1·05	1·72	...	0·75	16·92	2·07	2·01	**37·44**
	1892	...	1·20	...	4·83	3·31	2·71	0·40	2·52	0·30	6·18	0·71	2·93	**25·09**
	1893	0·39	0·43	7·99	1·71	1·92	2·00	0·46	0·49	1·16	10·47	14·83	...	**41·85**
	1894	...	0·45	1·48	0·99	3·27	0·80	0·30	3·09	1·34	4·98	0·67	...	**17·37**
Avanási.	1883	...	...	...	0·40	4·79	1·35	0·10	8·65	1·30	13·50	6·25	1·55	**37·89**
	1884	...	...	0·12	0·55	2·85	0·65	0·10	1·00	0·50	10·35	2·72	1·30	**20·14**
	1885	...	...	...	0·15	1·00	5·50	0·10	...	6·30	9·00	...	8·00	**30·05**
	1886	...	...	...	0·75	6·65	0·80	5·12	3·92	4·40	1·57	3·00	...	**26·21**
	1887	...	...	0·80	2·40	3·25	...	1·00	2·50	0·65	5·46	4·30	2·32	**22·68**
	1888	...	...	0·05	1·60	4·40	2·95	...	1·00	7·65	4·15	2·27	...	**24·07**
	1889	0·20	...	0·30	4·60	3·55	2·10	2·10	2·45	1·95	4·35	1·35	0·37	**23·32**
	1890	...	...	4·05	3·25	1·95	2·00	0·10	1·62	1·85	8·40	1·29	0·55	**25·06**
	1891	...	4·42	0·48	...	2·90	1·60	...	0·60	0·29	12·61	1·60	0·74	**25·24**
	1892	...	2·70	0·15	3·12	2·64	2·76	0·27	4·00	1·36	3·15	...	1·28	**21·43**
	1893	0·90	...	1·65	1·57	0·49	1·58	2·80	0·98	1·19	1·93	7·75	...	**20·84**
	1894	...	0·18	0·64	1·20	6·69	0·80	0·85	2·69	1·42	8·16	1·87	...	**24·50**

Number of Wet days—cont.

Recording stations.	Years.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.	Total.
Méttuppálaiyam.	1883	No record.												
	1884													
	1885													
	1886	...	...	...	2	4	2	4	3	4	7	5	...	**31**
	1887	1	1	1	4	5	2	...	4	1	10	6	7	**42**
	1888	1	...	...	1	7	1	1	1	3	8	9	...	**32**
	1889	...	...	1	3	5	6	6	3	4	9	6	3	**46**
	1890	2	1	6	5	9	4	3	5	3	10	6	1	**55**
	1891	...	...	1	4	4	4	3	...	1	16	4	4	**41**
	1892	...	2	...	8	7	4	1	6	1	8	3	3	**43**
	1893	1	1	8	3	3	6	2	2	2	13	13	...	**54**
	1894	...	1	2	3	5	1	1	11	2	11	3	...	**40**
Avanási.	1883	No record.												
	1884													
	1885													
	1886	...	...	...	1	8	3	5	7	13	4	4	...	**45**
	1887	...	...	2	2	3	...	2	3	2	7	9	4	**34**
	1888	...	...	...	3	7	3	...	3	7	6	4	...	**33**
	1889	1	...	2	3	4	3	6	5	6	7	2	1	**40**
	1890	...	...	3	5	5	3	1	5	6	9	3	1	**41**
	1891	...	4	2	...	2	2	...	1	1	14	2	2	**30**
	1892	...	1	1	8	6	5	1	10	4	9	...	2	**47**
	1893	1	...	3	4	2	5	7	2	3	6	8	...	**41**
	1894	...	1	1	3	10	1	1	4	3	13	1	...	**38**

CHAP. IV.
RAINFALL.

Statement of Rainfall at different stations in inches—cont.

Recording stations.	Years.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.	Total.
Satyamangalam.	1870	...	...	...	0·18	3·30	4·00	2·55	1·54	4·60	7·80	3·85	2·00	**29·82**
	1871	1·00	0·30	2·45	0·05	4·35	2·15	...	4·40	0·55	5·50	8·55	...	**29·30**
	1872	...	3·00	...	...	2·60	2·95	1·25	1·35	5·85	1·90	4·85	2·10	**25·85**
	1873	...	5·50	0·10	2·45	3·50	1·00	...	2·27	1·50	7·50	2·65	...	**26·47**
	1874	...	0·50	...	0·40	0·32	1·00	2·20	2·30	5·80	7·70	3·85	0·80	**24·87**
	1875	0·90	...	0·60	1·40	4·65	1·05	0·25	1·80	1·55	8·50	7·45	...	**28·15**
	1876	...	...	...	0·95	5·60	0·30	0·85	2·50	2·40	3·45	1·20	...	**17·25**
	1877	....	...	...	...	2·90	1·15	1·00	0·40	5·68	12·50	2·32	4·60	**30·55**
	1878	0·07	...	..	0·85	2·31	2·23	1·75	6·80	2·30	4·25	3·75	0·65	**24·96**
	1879	..	0·25	0·53	0·94	1·30	0·80	4·56	0·70	3·11	3·75	2·69	0·10	**18·73**
	1880	0·15	...	...	2·25	4·97	0·55	0·55	1·85	1·05	6·11	6·62	0·65	**24·75**
	1881	...	...	0·52	0·10	4·27	0·50	0·10	3·14	3·72	5·50	5·85	0·50	**24·20**
	1882	0·05	...	...	1·30	5·85	0·70	1·20	3·27	1·50	7·00	5·50	0·10	**26·47**
	1883	...	...	0·45	1·61	4·80	1·15	0·40	5·07	1·15	10·87	6·55	2·60	**34·65**
	1884	3·30	...	3·30	...	2·20	2·15	0·15	0·35	0·65	15·87	6·70	1·00	**35·67**
	1885	...	...	...	1·15	2·20	2·03	0·15	0·97	8·65	10·40	4·15	2·55	**32·25**
	1886	..	...	3·00	0·70	6·84	1·12	2·65	3·40	6·05	4·45	7·50	1·30	**37·01**
	1887	...	...	0·50	0·80	3·25	1·55	0·20	1·85	2·07	6·65	4·02	2·25	**23·14**
	1888	..	...	...	1·86	3·16	0·80	...	0·05	4·60	4·85	6·49	0·20	**22·01**
	1889	...	...	...	3·26	2·18	1·85	4·51	1·06	8·07	...	...	1·15	**22·08**
	AVERAGE—1870–89.	**0·27**	**0·48**	**0·58**	**1·01**	**3·53**	**1·45**	**1·21**	**2·25**	**3·54**	**6·73**	**4·73**	**1·13**	**26·91**
	1890	...	...	4·50	2·90	1·95	0·80	1·20	1·90	0·60	6·60	5·00	0·40	**25·85**
	1891	...	2·20	0·20	3·20	0·35	2·85	0·35	1·35	4·50	11·98	1·85	1·00	**29·83**
	1892	...	..	0·16	4·08	4·65	2·49	0·56	6·54	1·18	8·80	0·50	0·22	**29·18**
	1893	0·35	0·85	1·22	2·36	2·33	2·42	2·17	1·37	1·70	12·39	10·82	...	**37·98**
	1894	...	...	0·20	1·61	4·19	1·85	...	3·48	1·45	7·42	3·65	...	**23·85**
Bhaváni.	1870	...	...	...	...	2·35	4·65	2·20	2·05	2·85	9·05	1·40	...	**24·55**
	1871	1·00	2·90	2·58	0·90	3·05	...	0·50	1·80	5·70	2·97	5·90	...	**27·30**
	1872	...	...	...	2·35	4·80	2·50	5·37	7·10	6·90	1·31	6·77	0·30	**37·40**
	1873	...	...	...	0·90	1·30	...	2·90	3·42	1·09	6·12	0·76	0·15	**16·64**
	1874	...	0·57	0·12	2·35	4·51	1·29	2·35	1·43	8·53	6·12	2·99	0·80	**31·06**
	1875	...	...	1·93	5·12	5·19	2·88	0·38	2·43	1·19	7·31	0·50	1·36	**28·29**
	1876	...	...	...	0·63	5·20	1·02	2·32	3·53	2·20	2·72	0·43	...	**18·05**
	1877	...	...	2·40	1·25	2·47	2·98	1·23	...	7·54	7·18	2·35	3·75	**31·15**
	1878	...	...	...	2·22	2·59	1·28	4·03	5·41	5·04	5·50	1·80	0·87	**28·74**
	1879	0·37	0·32	3·08	0·25	1·64	1·97	8·23	2·57	6·66	3·35	2·23	0·45	**31·12**
	1880	0·15	...	...	1·72	3·93	0·48	0·44	4·87	2·09	7·64	11·04	1·18	**33·54**
	1881	...	...	0·25	0·35	4·63	1·21	0·20	5·16	3·95	1·22	3·99	0·35	**21·31**
	1882	1·44	...	0·70	1·64	7·26	0·52	1·17	4·21	1·99	7·95	8·56	0·57	**36·01**
	1883	...	...	0·34	0·57	4·45	..	1·48	6·04	2·24	15·73	4·18	4·23	**39·26**
	1884	0·05	...	2·55	0·43	1·43	4·22	0·40	0·84	0·67	8·65	9·59	1·50	**30·33**
	1885	...	...	0·70	0·15	2·65	3·43	0·31	0·72	3·83	12·78	1·30	5·33	**31·20**
	1886	0·03	...	0·10	0·50	6·10	1·71	4·08	3·79	7·63	0·98	2·35	0·54	**27·81**
	1887	...	...	0·17	1·32	4·08	2·58	1·30	3·44	1·70	2·29	5·62	2·17	**24·67**
	1888	...	...	0·20	1·54	1·70	0·58	0·70	1·40	3·55	4·12	3·86	0·03	**17·68**
	1889	0·22	...	0·48	5·05	2·03	1·75	4·12	3·41	3·36	10·34	4·15	0·55	**35·46**
	AVERAGE—1870–89.	**0·16**	**0·19**	**0·78**	**1·46**	**3·57**	**1·75**	**2·19**	**3·18**	**3·93**	**6·17**	**3·99**	**1·21**	**28·58**
	1890	0·18	...	1·05	4·22	4·53	2·42	1·75	4·88	1·57	5·17	2·19	0·85	**28·81**
	1891	0·20	0·50	0·32	2·45	1·32	7·51	0·45	1·68	0·84	7·44	2·55	0·57	**25·83**
	1892	...	2·35	0·35	3·25	4·35	3·13	2·35	7·53	1·20	7·25	0·10	0·36	**32·22**
	1893	...	4·70	2·85	1·85	2·14	5·93	2·50	1·52	2·25	7·90	7·82	...	**39·46**
	1894	...	0·15	1·30	1·36	1·71	1·50	3·29	4·66	3·15	9·48	2·52	...	**29·12**

Number of Wet days—cont.

Recording stations.	Years.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.	Total.
Satyamangalam.	1870	...	...	...	3	9	11	6	6	5	12	4	1	**57**
	1871	1	1	2	...	6	2	...	4	1	8	5	...	**30**
	1872	...	1	...	...	3	4	4	4	11	6	10	4	**47**
	1873	...	1	1	6	5	3	...	5	1	9	2	...	**33**
	1874	...	1	...	1	1	3	5	5	8	11	9	1	**45**
	1875	1	...	1	5	7	2	1	1	4	11	4	...	**37**
	1876	...	...	...	5	8	1	2	1	5	6	6	...	**34**
	1877	...	...	...	...	5	3	7	2	12	15	4	2	**50**
	1878	...	...	...	2	7	7	9	7	7	5	6	4	**54**
	1879	...	1	2	2	3	3	8	2	8	7	3	1	**40**
	1880	1	...	...	8	11	1	4	6	1	14	14	2	**62**
	1881	...	...	2	3	8	1	1	9	8	7	10	2	**51**
	1882	...	...	...	2	10	4	3	7	2	13	9	...	**50**
	1883	...	...	2	3	9	1	1	7	3	17	8	3	**54**
	1884	2	...	...	...	3	4	1	1	4	12	6	4	**37**
	1885	...	...	...	2	5	7	1	2	6	15	5	3	**46**
	1886	...	...	1	1	8	3	5	7	8	8	8	2	**51**
	1887	...	...	1	2	6	5	1	5	5	13	8	5	**51**
	1888	...	...	...	3	8	5	...	...	7	8	8	1	**40**
	1889	...	...	...	4	5	3	7	5	12	...	...	3	**39**
	AVERAGE—1870–89.	...	...	**1**	**3**	**6**	**4**	**3**	**4**	**6**	**10**	**6**	**2**	**45**
	1890	...	...	2	8	2	6	15	7	...	11	5	1	**57**
	1891	1	2	...	3	2	8	1	5	5	12	3	3	**45**
	1892	...	...	1	7	9	8	2	11	4	12	1	2	**57**
	1893	2	3	4	6	6	8	8	3	2	15	12	...	**69**
	1894	...	...	1	3	8	1	...	5	4	10	4	...	**36**
Bhavání.	1870	...	...	...	...	4	8	5	5	7	8	4	...	**41**
	1871	1	2	4	2	4	...	1	5	12	9	7	...	**47**
	1872	...	...	...	3	6	4	7	11	7	3	8	1	**50**
	1873	...	...	...	3	3	...	1	5	7	11	4	1	**35**
	1874	...	2	1	3	8	4	8	5	10	12	5	1	**59**
	1875	...	...	1	6	8	4	2	5	3	11	2	1	**43**
	1876	...	...	...	2	8	2	6	7	3	4	1	...	**33**
	1877	...	...	1	1	7	3	3	...	9	9	4	6	**43**
	1878	...	...	...	2	5	6	7	9	7	8	3	4	**51**
	1879	1	2	2	2	3	5	8	4	7	5	1	2	**42**
	1880	1	...	...	2	9	2	2	9	7	10	9	3	**54**
	1881	...	...	1	1	7	4	1	11	6	5	5	1	**42**
	1882	3	...	1	4	9	2	6	9	2	11	9	1	**57**
	1883	...	...	1	2	5	...	3	7	3	16	10	3	**50**
	1884	...	...	2	1	4	6	2	3	2	10	7	2	**39**
	1885	...	...	1	1	5	5	1	3	6	18	4	7	**51**
	1886	...	...	1	1	8	4	9	9	13	3	3	2	**53**
	1887	...	...	1	3	7	5	3	6	3	7	9	5	**49**
	1888	...	...	1	3	3	2	2	5	8	7	8	...	**39**
	1889	1	...	2	2	5	4	8	8	8	11	3	2	**54**
	AVERAGE—1870–89.	**1**	...	**1**	**2**	**6**	**4**	**4**	**6**	**7**	**9**	**5**	**2**	**47**
	1890	1	...	3	8	10	5	6	10	5	9	8	1	**66**
	1891	1	2	2	4	2	5	1	5	3	12	5	2	**44**
	1892	...	1	1	6	7	8	4	11	2	10	1	3	**54**
	1893	...	2	5	3	5	10	7	3	2	11	12	...	**60**
	1894	...	1	1	2	3	1	3	10	5	14	4	...	**44**

CHAP. IV.
RAINFALL.

Statement of Rainfall at different stations in inches—cont.

Recording stations.	Years.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.	Total.
Perundurai.	1883	...	...	...	1·02	3·83	0·32	0·62	3·52	2·40	9·29	5·10	2·80	**28·90**
	1884	...	...	0·90	...	1·93	1·16	0·15	2·59	0·30	9·85	3·80	1·80	**22·48**
	1885	...	...	1·10	...	0·40	1·08	0·45	0·90	2·30	12·30	0·70	8·60	**27·83**
	1886	...	...	...	0·40	5·98	1·77	3·27	4·95	4·33	0·65	1·95	0·45	**23·75**
	1887	...	...	0·42	2·10	2·77	0·60	...	3·30	2·60	6·84	3·45	2·86	**24·94**
	1888	...	...	0·15	1·80	2·68	1·20	...	0·25	4·37	2·85	3·90	0·15	**17·35**
	1889	0·20	...	0·85	5·00	3·90	0·55	2·95	1·30	3·00	4·60	0·30	0·80	**23·45**
	1890	...	...	0·55	1·95	5·16	...	...	4·96	0·51	6·71	1·65	0·22	**21·71**
	1891	...	...	0·30	1·93	2·93	2·82	0·33	0·99	0·55	4·02	0·55	0·29	**14·71**
	1892	...	1·15	0·21	1·33	3·10	1·94	0·27	0·36	0·60	3·20	...	0·93	**19·09**
	1893	...	1·25	2·68	2·97	2·63	4·30	2·78	0·67	2·75	7·41	6·09	...	**33·53**
	1894	...	0·45	...	2·84	3·19	0·68	0·40	4·95	2·56	7·10	1·16	...	**23·33**
Erode.	1870	...	...	...	0·90	4·19	2·18	0·95	3·50	3·85	5·60	3·90	0·60	**25·67**
	1871	1·30	4·40	2·80	2·30	3·40	0·55	1·10	1·50	2·70	5·15	5·15	0·55	**30·90**
	1872	...	...	...	0·65	3·30	3·90	0·50	3·65	3·20	0·70	2·28	...	**18·18**
	1873	...	2·35	...	2·25	2·20	...	0·85	3·01	2·00	10·15	1·00	...	**23·81**
	1874	...	0·35	...	1·50	2·50	0·75	1·55	4·30	5·05	3·75	6·50	0·10	**26·35**
	1875	...	...	0·90	4·10	3·20	0·35	1·05	1·60	0·35	8·65	1·60	0·40	**22·20**
	1876	...	...	...	1·75	4·50	0·15	0·85	2·70	2·50	1·20	0·92	...	**14·57**
	1877	...	...	0·50	0·50	3·46	1·54	0·25	0·09	7·70	5·61	3·71	1·95	**25·31**
	1878	...	...	...	1·85	3·30	4·05	3·83	5·06	4·58	4·08	2·00	0·65	**29·40**
	1879	0·41	0·25	1·15	0·05	1·97	0·83	6·30	2·15	6·55	2·55	0·87	...	**23·08**
	1880	0·37	...	...	4·60	5·32	0·37	1·52	4·03	3·07	6·99	9·46	0·82	**36·55**
	1881	...	...	0·25	...	3·42	...	0·10	6·16	2·10	0·70	4·21	0·75	**17·69**
	1882	0·50	...	0·50	0·87	4·57	0·97	1·13	5·81	1·03	12·10	5·57	0·03	**33·08**
	1883	...	...	0·38	0·95	6·62	0·28	2·21	6·17	1·80	11·40	7·17	4·98	**41·96**
	1884	...	...	0·38	0·22	1·67	4·07	1·15	3·39	0·81	4·15	4·13	1·95	**21·92**
	1885	...	...	1·15	0·32	3·02	5·38	...	0·90	4·85	18·14	1·10	6·39	**41·25**
	1886	...	...	...	0·09	4·75	2·55	6·51	3·80	4·34	2·72	2·73	0·54	**28·03**
	1887	...	...	0·71	1·90	4·08	0·91	0·28	3·93	2·94	2·13	5·35	2·45	**24·68**
	1888	...	...	1·65	3·48	2·99	...	...	1·10	3·40	3·45	2·72	...	**18·79**
	1889	...	...	0·55	4·82	4·69	1·45	4·19	0·51	3·43	6·29	3·12	0·43	**29·48**
	AVERAGE—1870–89.	**0·13**	**0·37**	**0·54**	**1·65**	**3·66**	**1·51**	**1·72**	**3·17**	**3·31**	**5·78**	**3·67**	**1·13**	**26·64**
	1890	...	...	1·10	1·70	5·25	0·30	...	3·11	2·09	7·69	2·08	0·84	**24·16**
	1891	0·22	0·12	0·47	2·89	0·30	4·22	0·15	2·10	0·79	6·19	3·66	0·46	**21·57**
	1892	...	0·47	...	1·71	5·39	0·95	1·57	7·48	1·02	6·80	...	0·75	**26·14**
	1893	...	0·57	2·14	2·37	2·24	5·54	3·26	1·68	3·23	8·80	6·62	...	**36·45**
	1894	...	...	0·48	1·11	4·00	1·16	1·22	3·72	6·00	4·36	1·45	...	**23·50**

Number of Wet days—cont.

Recording stations.	Years.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.	Total.
Perundurai.	1883	No record.												
	1884													
	1885													
	1886	...	...	...	1	8	6	6	6	9	2	3	2	**43**
	1887	...	...	1	2	6	1	...	6	4	12	9	4	**45**
	1888	...	...	1	3	4	1	...	1	6	6	8	1	**31**
	1889	1	...	1	3	6	1	4	5	7	4	1	2	**35**
	1890	...	...	3	4	5	2	...	4	2	11	4	...	**35**
	1891	...	4	1	2	4	4	1	3	2	10	5	2	**38**
	1892	...	1	1	4	7	8	2	8	2	5	...	2	**40**
	1893	...	2	4	4	4	7	5	2	2	10	7	...	**47**
	1894	...	1	...	3	7	1	2	8	7	9	1	...	**39**
Erode.	1870	...	...	...	1	7	3	2	4	5	5	3	1	**31**
	1871	...	...	...	2	7	2	3	4	6	8	9	1	**42**
	1872	...	2	...	2	4	3	1	5	5	3	6	...	**31**
	1873	...	1	...	3	3	...	3	4	4	13	3	...	**34**
	1874	...	...	1	1	6	3	6	5	11	7	5	1	**46**
	1875	...	...	1	6	6	1	2	3	1	13	5	1	**39**
	1876	...	...	...	3	9	2	4	7	4	2	2	...	**33**
	1877	...	...	1	1	7	3	1	...	8	10	8	7	**46**
	1878	...	...	...	2	4	6	7	6	7	7	5	1	**45**
	1879	1	1	2	...	2	2	5	4	9	9	2	...	**37**
	1880	1	...	...	4	7	2	4	6	6	11	14	3	**58**
	1881	...	...	1	...	4	...	1	8	6	2	8	3	**33**
	1882	2	...	1	3	10	4	6	8	3	10	11	...	**58**
	1883	...	...	1	3	8	2	6	7	5	14	8	3	**57**
	1884	...	...	2	1	5	4	1	4	3	11	9	3	**43**
	1885	...	...	1	1	3	4	...	1	6	15	2	6	**39**
	1886	...	...	...	...	7	4	8	9	10	6	5	1	**50**
	1887	...	...	3	3	8	2	1	6	5	5	6	4	**43**
	1888	...	...	1	4	4	...	...	3	6	6	4	...	**28**
	1889	...	...	2	4	5	2	5	1	8	9	3	2	**41**
	AVERAGE—1870-89.	...	...	**1**	**2**	**6**	**3**	**3**	**5**	**6**	**8**	**6**	**2**	**42**
	1890	...	...	1	3	7	1	...	6	3	8	5	1	**35**
	1891	1	1	2	3	1	4	1	3	3	11	4	2	**36**
	1892	...	1	...	5	8	2	4	11	2	8	...	3	**44**
	1893	...	1	2	6	5	6	6	2	4	9	8	...	**49**
	1894	...	...	2	3	8	1	2	8	10	9	3	...	**46**

CHAP. IV.
RAINFALL.

Statement of Rainfall at different stations in inches—cont.

Recording stations.	Years.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.	Total.
Karúr.	1870	0·75	...	...	0·03	...	5·11	0·40	7·75	3·36	6·20	3·56	0·55	**27·71**
	1871	0·64	0·73	0·20	2·26	3·14	0·37	2·24	1·87	6·73	3·75	4·13	0·50	**26·56**
	1872	...	...	...	1·02	7·00	5·33	2·89	4·57	5·07	2·52	7·22	3·33	**38·95**
	1873	...	1·02	...	2·80	2·85	...	0·67	2·16	2·40	14·84	...	0·03	**26·77**
	1874	...	0·85	...	0·17	2·70	0·03	2·07	3·74	1·94	4·12	4·75	0·68	**21·05**
	1875	...	...	0·20	0·26	4·03	1·13	...	3·13	1·90	10·67	0·95	0·71	**22·98**
	1876	...	...	0·65	0·09	4·41	1·40	0·50	5·09	1·55	1·76	0·83	0·75	**17·03**
	1877	...	...	0·20	0·25	3·42	...	...	0·24	6·86	7·69	4·67	3·55	**26·88**
	1878	0·62	...	...	2·03	6·07	0·15	4·04	6·28	4·51	8·11	1·37	1·75	**34·93**
	1879	...	0·05	1·50	0·35	0·80	0·76	6·44	3·42	1·53	3·20	2·95	0·03	**21·03**
	1880	0·02	...	...	4·33	2·46	...	0·82	4·71	3·96	7·26	10·87	0·86	**35·29**
	1881	...	...	...	...	3·97	...	...	3·98	6·19	0·93	2·79	1·88	**19·74**
	1882	0·55	...	...	0·82	9·35	0·15	0·23	4·82	1·96	14·74	3·25	0·82	**36·69**
	1883	...	...	...	...	3·32	1·11	...	5·77	1·00	7·79	4·20	1·39	**24·58**
	1884	0·92	...	1·68	0·67	5·24	0·08	...	0·43	0·92	9·63	5·45	5·43	**30·45**
	1885	...	...	...	...	1·44	0·98	...	5·15	2·66	9·43	1·28	2·03	**22·97**
	1886	...	...	0·25	...	6·89	1·82	1·93	6·19	4·30	1·08	0·40	0·41	**23·27**
	1887	...	...	1·00	4·73	2·13	0·87	0·14	3·74	1·47	6·05	2·86	2·84	**25·83**
	1888	...	...	...	2·00	3·01	0·45	1·19	0·80	5·82	2·96	6·96	1·78	**24·97**
	1889	...	...	...	5·34	1·75	2·40	0·76	3·17	6·10	4·90	0·64	1·41	**26·47**
	AVERAGE—1870–89.	**0·18**	**0·13**	**0·28**	**1·36**	**3·70**	**1·11**	**1·21**	**3·85**	**3·51**	**6·38**	**3·46**	**1·54**	**26·71**
	1890	0·45	...	...	2·09	2·62	0·98	0·07	4·71	3·22	11·51	8·22	...	**33·87**
	1891	...	0·72	...	0·80	4·23	2·02	...	0·63	0·55	5·69	1·46	0·83	**16·93**
	1892	...	...	...	1·47	2·84	3·31	1·02	1·70	0·61	4·82	0·24	0·96	**16·97**
	1893	...	0·17	0·90	1·00	3·23	5·93	4·28	0·74	0·77	5·13	10·87	...	**33·02**
	1894	0·05	...	...	0·85	4·60	0·46	0·65	3·96	2·31	3·33	0·95	0·12	**17·28**
Aravakkuric'chi.	1883	...	...	...	0·60	2·46	0·20	...	3·85	0·90	5·69	4·00	0·52	**18·22**
	1884	0·30	...	0·30	0·55	0·40	2·60	...	...	...	6·67	3·28	7·99	**22·09**
	1885	...	...	0·30	...	1·15	1·90	1·47	...	2·31	13·60	2·04	8·56	**31·33**
	1886	...	...	...	0·50	5·37	0·32	2·41	2·90	3·61	6·20	0·05	0·50	**21·86**
	1887	...	...	3·30	3·10	...	1·00	0·70	4·65	1·00	3·90	2·24	2·20	**22·09**
	1888	...	...	...	1·05	4·60	...	0·19	...	3·53	2·53	3·55	1·40	**16·85**
	1889	0·05	...	0·80	3·70	4·35	0·67	...	0·67	4·87	6·80	0·74	1·23	**23·88**
	1890	0·25	...	0·40	4·14	4·23	1·42	...	1·83	1·89	9·68	1·87	...	**25·71**
	1891	...	1·55	0·39	0·16	3·37	1·00	...	0·85	0·81	7·69	0·98	0·85	**17·65**
	1892	...	...	0·50	0·67	1·33	0·81	1·28	2·25	0·53	7·73	...	0·90	**16·00**
	1893	...	0·30	2·35	3·45	3·77	4·31	1·21	1·65	0·11	4·76	10·90	...	**32·81**
	1894	0·09	0·64	0·59	1·89	2·13	1·19	0·20	2·17	1·31	8·96	2·28	0·15	**21·60**

Number of Wet days—cont.

Recording stations.	Years.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.	Total.
Karúr.	1870	1	...	...	2	...	8	1	12	7	10	9	2	**52**
	1871	1	1	1	3	5	1	2	5	8	8	8	2	**45**
	1872	...	...	...	2	4	5	6	6	11	6	12	10	**62**
	1873	...	3	...	6	2	...	1	4	6	18	...	...	**40**
	1874	...	2	...	1	3	...	3	3	5	8	9	1	**35**
	1875	...	...	1	1	6	3	...	5	4	15	3	2	**40**
	1876	...	...	2	...	6	1	1	8	3	2	1	1	**25**
	1877	...	...	1	1	6	...	...	2	8	7	2	5	**31**
	1878	1	...	...	1	8	1	5	8	9	8	3	1	**45**
	1879	...	...	2	2	1	1	7	5	5	7	2	...	**32**
	1880	...	...	...	8	6	...	3	8	6	10	15	3	**59**
	1881	...	...	...	...	6	...	...	7	7	2	8	7	**37**
	1882	1	...	...	1	9	1	2	6	7	10	7	2	**46**
	1883	...	...	...	...	5	1	...	6	...	12	9	2	**36**
	1884	2	...	1	1	5	...	...	2	1	8	8	7	**35**
	1885	...	...	...	...	3	5	...	5	5	13	4	8	**43**
	1886	...	...	1	...	8	2	3	8	9	5	2	3	**41**
	1887	...	...	2	2	4	2	1	5	3	12	7	6	**44**
	1888	...	...	...	2	7	1	1	1	8	7	12	4	**43**
	1889	...	...	...	2	3	3	2	5	6	5	2	3	**31**
	AVERAGE—1870–89.	...	...	**1**	**2**	**5**	**2**	**2**	**5**	**6**	**9**	**6**	**3**	**41**
	1890	2	...	...	5	6	2	...	4	3	7	4	...	**33**
	1891	...	3	1	2	2	2	...	2	2	10	3	3	**30**
	1892	...	...	...	4	3	4	3	5	2	8	1	2	**32**
	1893	...	1	1	2	6	6	7	3	1	7	8	...	**42**
	1894	...	...	...	3	6	1	2	3	4	7	5	1	**32**
Aravakkuric'chi.	1883	No record.												
	1884	No record.												
	1885	No record.												
	1886	...	...	...	1	9	1	4	7	6	3	...	2	**33**
	1887	...	...	3	2	...	1	1	2	1	8	7	7	**32**
	1888	...	...	...	3	9	...	1	...	5	8	12	2	**40**
	1889	...	...	1	3	4	2	...	2	6	8	3	3	**32**
	1890	2	...	1	5	6	2	...	3	2	9	4	...	**34**
	1891	...	4	2	1	4	1	...	1	1	10	3	3	**30**
	1892	...	...	1	3	3	3	2	5	3	5	...	2	**27**
	1893	...	1	1	2	6	4	2	2	1	7	14	...	**40**
	1894	...	2	1	3	3	2	1	4	3	10	6	1	**36**

CHAP. IV.
RAINFALL.

Statement of Rainfall at different stations in inches—cont.

Recording stations.	Years.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.	Total.
Kángayam.	1883	...	...	...	0·55	2·40	0·55	...	4·45	0·87	4·85	1·85	2·10	**17·62**
	1884	0·55	...	1·00	1·35	1·85	1·35	...	0·20	0·95	5·95	4·95	2·50	**20·65**
	1885	...	...	0·05	...	0·65	0·75	...	0·02	0·25	12·46	0·48	4·66	**19·32**
	1886	...	...	...	...	7·85	...	5·25	1·95	4·05	0·92	1·12	0·60	**21·74**
	1887	...	...	1·25	2·40	2·55	1·25	0·30	2·71	0·57	7·43	4·00	3·95	**26·41**
	1888	...	...	...	1·95	7·15	...	...	0·10	0·50	2·36	5·90	1·65	**19·61**
	1889	...	...	...	6·60	0·72	1·05	0·85	0·65	5·80	5·05	0·25	0·50	**21·47**
	1890	...	...	3·40	5·60	5·55	0·60	...	3·40	1·05	8·20	1·30	...	**29·10**
	1891	...	0·92	0·33	0·20	1·58	2·10	...	...	0·31	5·02	2·24	0·58	**13·28**
	1892	...	0·22	...	2·42	4·63	0·89	0·14	2·06	1·00	5·21	0·75	0·97	**18·29**
	1893	...	0·38	2·10	3·69	0·62	6·01	3·05	2·15	...	7·17	7·76	...	**32·93**
	1894	...	0·46	...	3·86	2·32	0·90	0·26	3·22	0·76	6·51	2·19	...	**20·48**
Dhárápuram.	1870	1·45	...	...	0·67	0·25	2·00	...	3·23	3·87	1·36	2·71	0·58	**16·12**
	1871	0·47	0·46	4·23	2·23	3·39	0·15	...	0·19	0·28	5·83	6·23	0·16	**23·62**
	1872	...	0·48	...	1·98	1·69	5·10	0·49	...	2·32	1·40	3·53	1·94	**18·93**
	1873	...	2·05	...	3·23	3·02	0·04	...	1·00	2·31	3·36	2·10	0·11	**17·22**
	1874	...	0·20	...	1·02	2·30	0·19	0·16	0·69	0·07	2·97	5·47	...	**13·07**
	1875	...	...	0·45	1·95	3·10	0·33	...	0·18	0·64	8·55	2·75	...	**17·95**
	1876	...	...	0·25	1·43	4·38	...	0·09	0·52	1·31	1·91	0·40	0·17	**10·46**
	1877	...	...	0·25	0·88	0·92	4·00	...	0·08	4·58	8·23	5·28	4·36	**28·58**
	1878	0·05	...	...	2·34	4·88	0·05	1·77	0·88	0·92	4·51	2·07	0·35	**17·82**
	1879	0·04	0·05	1·54	0·80	4·35	...	2·22	...	1·48	3·49	2·07	0·38	**16·42**
	1880	0·08	...	...	4·35	0·90	0·14	...	2·38	0·89	4·12	16·31	0·65	**29·82**
	1881	...	...	...	...	2·69	...	0·05	...	...	4·64	5·76	1·89	**15·03**
	1882	1·33	...	...	0·73	7·02	0·62	0·26	1·73	1·20	7·29	5·11	0·28	**25·57**
	1883	...	...	0·34	0·31	2·41	...	0·10	3·19	0·05	6·22	2·70	1·85	**17·17**
	1884	0·49	...	0·13	0·18	1·83	0·15	...	...	...	6·34	7·65	4·67	**21·44**
	1885	...	...	0·42	...	1·45	1·08	0·05	...	2·49	9·71	1·96	5·91	**23·07**
	1886	0·20	...	...	...	5·48	...	0·60	2·63	2·70	0·32	2·40	0·25	**14·58**
	1887	...	...	2·10	4·60	1·45	0·10	...	0·82	0·05	9·60	5·59	5·71	**30·02**
	1888	...	...	0·10	1·50	1·87	0·04	0·05	...	2·21	5·41	2·18	1·70	**15·06**
	1889	...	...	...	5·34	1·81	...	0·32	2·20	3·54	2·83	2·60	4·64	**23·28**
	AVERAGE—1870-89	**0·20**	**0·16**	**0·49**	**1·68**	**2·76**	**0·70**	**0·31**	**0·99**	**1·55**	**4·90**	**4·24**	**1·78**	**19·76**
	1890	0·85	...	0·35	2·53	1·50	0·15	...	0·45	0·65	7·00	3·10	...	**16·58**
	1891	...	0·95	0·30	...	0·30	2·80	...	0·30	0·18	7·03	1·46	1·82	**15·14**
	1892	...	0·05	...	2·78	3·90	0·90	0·45	0·71	...	3·28	...	0·30	**12·37**
	1893	...	...	1·07	1·75	1·48	1·50	0·49	...	...	5·20	12·75	0·06	**24·30**
	1894	0·05	2·95	0·08	1·67	0·66	0·67	...	0·29	0·75	8·19	0·89	...	**16·20**

Number of Wet days—cont.

Recording stations.	Years.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.	Total.
Kángayam.	1883	No record.												
	1884													
	1885													
	1886	...	...	...	...	10	...	4	5	9	3	4	2	**37**
	1887	...	...	1	4	2	3	1	2	1	8	8	4	**34**
	1888	...	...	...	4	7	...	...	1	1	4	9	3	**29**
	1889	...	...	...	3	2	3	2	3	5	9	1	1	**29**
	1890	...	...	2	5	6	2	...	4	3	7	4	...	**33**
	1891	...	2	1	1	3	4	...	...	1	11	7	2	**32**
	1892	...	1	...	3	5	3	...	4	2	8	3	3	**32**
	1893	...	1	1	5	2	6	2	5	...	13	9	...	**44**
	1894	...	1	...	7	6	1	1	5	1	10	6	...	**38**
Dhárápuram.	1870	2	...	...	3	1	4	...	8	8	4	9	4	**43**
	1871	3	1	3	5	4	1	...	1	1	7	8	1	**35**
	1872	...	1	...	2	4	3	2	...	4	3	7	5	**31**
	1873	...	5	...	3	4	...	...	2	2	11	3	1	**31**
	1874	...	1	...	1	4	1	1	1	...	4	7	...	**20**
	1875	...	...	1	3	4	1	...	1	1	16	5	...	**32**
	1876	...	...	1	3	5	...	...	1	3	2	1	1	**17**
	1877	...	...	1	1	2	4	...	...	6	13	9	8	**44**
	1878	...	...	...	3	6	...	5	3	3	6	2	1	**29**
	1879	...	...	4	2	2	...	4	...	3	7	4	2	**28**
	1880	...	...	...	5	4	...	...	4	1	10	12	2	**38**
	1881	...	...	...	...	5	...	...	...	...	7	9	6	**27**
	1882	2	...	...	2	7	3	1	4	2	9	9	1	**40**
	1883	...	...	2	2	5	...	1	6	...	10	8	2	**36**
	1884	3	...	1	1	6	1	...	...	...	11	11	6	**40**
	1885	...	...	1	...	3	2	...	...	4	17	6	6	**39**
	1886	1	...	...	...	8	...	1	6	4	2	3	2	**27**
	1887	...	...	2	3	4	1	...	1	...	13	10	8	**42**
	1888	...	...	1	5	4	...	...	...	6	10	7	5	**38**
	1889	...	...	...	4	4	...	2	3	7	7	2	4	**33**
	AVERAGE—1870-89.	**1**	...	**1**	**2**	**4**	**1**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**9**	**7**	**3**	**34**
	1890	2	...	1	5	5	1	...	2	3	8	6	...	**33**
	1891	...	4	2	...	4	3	...	1	1	11	5	7	**38**
	1892	...	...	...	4	4	4	2	2	...	7	...	2	**25**
	1893	...	...	1	3	4	3	1	...	...	11	12	...	**35**
	1894	...	2	...	4	3	1	...	2	2	8	4	...	**26**

CHAP. IV.
RAINFALL.

Statement of Rainfall at different stations in inches—cont.

Recording stations.	Years.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.	Total.
Udamalpet.	1870	0·40	...	...	1·79	0·57	2·87	0·80	1·74	0·20	2·68	2·20	0·65	**13·90**
	1871	...	0·80	2·92	1·85	3·85	1·13	1·65	...	...	4·48	14·83	0·05	**31·56**
	1872	...	0·30	...	2·32	2·38	2·57	0·83	...	1·45	0·95	6·34	1·23	**18·37**
	1873	...	2·20	...	5·02	4·40	0·71	0·63	0·87	0·80	6·65	3·66	0·40	**25·34**
	1874	0·50	0·22	0·92	1·70	1·70	1·88	0·78	0·55	...	3·51	6·17	3·62	**21·55**
	1875	...	...	0·80	4·87	1·70	1·40	0·80	...	...	6·22	1·95	...	**17·74**
	1876	...	...	...	1·60	3·21	0·80	1·09	...	2·69	2·83	0·90	0·25	**13·37**
	1877	...	0·05	0·23	2·95	0·35	1·82	...	...	5·81	7·85	5·90	5·05	**30·01**
	1878	...	...	...	1·86	1·15	0·65	0·85	2·25	0·85	5·20	4·57	0·93	**18·31**
	1879	...	0·55	2·40	0·08	4·18	0·29	1·55	0·18	0·37	1·69	1·82	0·46	**13·57**
	1880	0·03	...	...	3·44	3·03	0·37	...	0·12	...	5·06	16·97	0·89	**29·91**
	1881	...	...	...	0·10	4·50	0·30	...	0·15	...	1·40	4·53	3·20	**14·18**
	1882	0·55	...	0·84	1·10	4·52	2·04	1·06	...	0·53	10·84	4·49	1·13	**27·10**
	1883	...	...	0·42	1·55	2·69	0·15	0·80	1·20	...	7·48	8·05	2·25	**24·59**
	1884	0·97	...	0·47	...	2·23	0·23	0·18	1·07	...	11·87	14·22	3·64	**34·88**
	1885	...	...	..	0·65	0·65	3·97	...	0·66	2·55	9·49	1·85	2·61	**22·43**
	1886	...	...	...	...	5·69	0·45	0·62	1·48	1·12	1·12	3·27	0·18	**13·93**
	1887	...	...	1·55	5·12	0·87	0·76	0·50	0·52	...	9·42	2·69	5·37	**26·80**
	1888	...	...	0·81	0·52	3·38	0·79	0·12	...	0·69	5·48	3·58	1·45	**16·82**
	1889	...	...	0·52	8·12	1·42	0·10	0·22	0·95	4·40	4·20	3·52	2·08	**25·53**
	AVERAGE—1870-89.	**0·12**	**0·21**	**0·60**	**2·23**	**2·62**	**1·16**	**0·62**	**0·59**	**1·07**	**5·42**	**5·58**	**1·77**	**21·99**
	1890	1·08	0·03	...	3·98	2·48	...	0·10	0·24	...	19·64	0·47	...	**28·02**
	1891	...	1·69	...	0·38	1·26	...	0·27	...	0·43	7·85	3·61	3·49	**18·98**
	1892	...	...	...	1·63	3·19	1·14	1·33	0·71	...	1·29	0·35	0·73	**10·37**
	1893	...	...	3·91	3·27	1·85	2·47	...	...	0·46	1·35	10·32	0·11	**23·74**
	1894	0·27	1·15	1·95	3·77	1·31	0·35	0·28	0·40	0·10	7·20	2·13	...	**18·91**
Palladam.	1870	0·60	...	0·90	0·75	0·45	0·55	0·80	0·60	2·80	4·55	1·31	0·40	**13·71**
	1871	1·25	0·20	0·88	1·80	0·85	...	...	0·65	1·00	4·22	12·20	...	**23·05**
	1872	...	...	...	1·50	1·21	1·00	0·62	...	5·30	1·21	1·95	1·27	**14·06**
	1873	...	3·99	...	3·59	2·15	...	...	1·50	1·31	6·10	1·98	0·38	**21·00**
	1874	...	0·10	...	1·45	1·72	0·65	0·25	1·30	...	3·68	3·15	0·15	**12·45**
	1875	...	...	...	1·00	2·40	0·55	...	...	0·40	10·72	0·60	...	**15·67**
	1876	...	...	...	1·06	5·40	...	0·70	1·85	1·10	1·02	1·65	...	**12·78**
	1877	...	...	0·03	...	1·05	3·75	...	...	4·60	11·05	8·23	2·08	**30·79**
	1878	0·37	...	...	0·65	3·50	0·45	1·24	1·85	0·50	1·88	2·50	...	**12·94**
	1879	...	...	3·30	1·15	3·25	...	2·10	...	0·95	3·30	1·00	0·04	**15·09**
	1880	0·15	...	...	1·90	2·65	0·50	...	1·20	0·75	8·00	10·48	1·10	**26·73**
	1881	...	...	0·15	...	2·90	0·30	...	0·10	1·70	2·30	4·95	1·55	**13·95**
	1882	1·30	...	...	1·20	7·90	0·45	0·20	1·35	1·70	4·65	4·10	0·15	**23·00**
	1883	...	...	...	0·90	2·25	1·35	...	4·75	0·20	12·05	3·85	0·60	**25·95**
	1884	0·15	...	...	0·17	0·70	...	...	...	...	10·80	4·70	1·80	**18·32**
	1885	...	...	0·45	0·55	3·50	4·95	...	...	1·95	13·83	0·35	6·79	**32·37**
	1886	...	...	...	...	7·95	0·20	0·95	0·95	1·30	2·95	4·45	0·50	**19·25**
	1887	...	...	2·15	4·80	1·05	0·45	...	2·65	3·10	11·30	3·30	4·45	**33·25**
	1888	...	...	0·45	1·80	3·70	0·15	...	...	4·57	3·63	1·41	0·78	**16·49**
	1889	...	...	...	7·45	4·57	0·12	...	1·25	4·51	3·52	3·71	0·49	**25·62**
	AVERAGE—1870-89.	**0·13**	**0·21**	**0·48**	**1·59**	**2·96**	**0·77**	**0·34**	**1·00**	**1·89**	**6·04**	**3·79**	**1·13**	**20·33**
	1890	...	...	1·50	2·08	3·11	0·30	..	1·58	0·20	8·50	1·15	...	**18·42**
	1891	...	3·20	0·03	0·52	2·30	...	0·22	...	2·45	10·40	2·80	2·02	**23·94**
	1892	...	3·65	...	1·70	2·81	0·28	...	0·85	0·55	3·69	..	0·45	**13·98**
	1893	...	0·72	1·98	1·55	3·60	0·60	0·26	...	...	3·21	10·75	...	**22·67**
	1894	...	0·25	1·63	2·88	5·12	0·36	...	4·21	1·61	10·55	3·00	...	**29·61**

Number of Wet days—cont.

Recording stations.	Years.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.	Total.
Udamalpet.	1870	2	...	...	3	2	6	5	6	2	6	8	2	**42**
	1871	...	2	2	4	4	3	3	...	...	3	9	...	**30**
	1872	...	1	...	5	5	3	3	...	6	2	15	7	**47**
	1873	...	4	...	6	6	5	1	3	1	9	5	2	**42**
	1874	1	1	1	2	6	9	4	1	...	7	6	4	**42**
	1875	...	...	1	4	6	2	3	...	...	10	8	...	**34**
	1876	...	...	...	4	6	1	4	...	3	3	4	1	**26**
	1877	...	...	1	3	3	6	...	...	8	13	11	8	**53**
	1878	...	...	...	3	3	2	5	5	3	8	6	1	**36**
	1879	...	1	3	...	8	1	5	1	1	4	3	2	**29**
	1880	...	...	...	5	4	2	...	1	...	7	15	3	**37**
	1881	...	...	...	1	4	1	...	1	...	4	6	5	**22**
	1882	1	...	1	1	6	7	5	...	2	10	7	3	**43**
	1883	...	...	1	3	6	1	2	2	...	10	8	1	**34**
	1884	1	...	1	...	5	1	1	2	...	10	13	7	**41**
	1885	...	...	...	1	2	7	...	3	1	8	4	7	**33**
	1886	...	...	...	...	9	1	3	3	3	4	6	1	**30**
	1887	...	...	1	6	2	5	3	1	...	11	5	8	**42**
	1888	...	...	1	2	7	2	...	...	2	10	6	4	**34**
	1889	...	...	1	5	5	...	...	2	7	4	3	3	**30**
	AVERAGE—1870-89.	...	**1**	**1**	**3**	**5**	**3**	**2**	**2**	**2**	**7**	**7**	**3**	**36**
	1890	2	1	...	4	5	...	1	1	...	7	3	...	**24**
	1891	...	4	...	1	4	...	1	...	1	11	5	6	**33**
	1892	...	...	...	5	5	1	5	3	...	3	1	2	**25**
	1893	...	...	4	4	4	5	...	...	1	4	15	1	**38**
	1894	1	2	2	6	3	2	1	1	1	9	5	...	**33**
Palladam.	1870	1	...	1	3	1	1	2	1	4	7	3	1	**25**
	1871	1	1	2	3	3	...	...	1	1	6	9	...	**27**
	1872	...	...	...	2	2	1	1	...	5	3	5	3	**22**
	1873	...	3	...	5	2	...	...	2	2	8	3	1	**26**
	1874	...	1	...	2	5	2	2	1	...	6	7	1	**27**
	1875	...	...	...	1	4	2	...	...	1	11	4	...	**23**
	1876	...	...	...	1	6	...	1	2	4	1	3	...	**18**
	1877	...	...	...	...	2	4	...	...	3	10	8	5	**32**
	1878	1	...	...	1	4	1	3	4	1	5	5	...	**25**
	1879	...	...	·3	3	5	...	3	...	3	6	1	...	**24**
	1880	1	...	...	5	4	2	...	3	4	10	12	2	**43**
	1881	...	...	1	...	6	1	...	1	2	4	8	3	**26**
	1882	2	...	...	2	10	3	1	4	2	7	9	1	**41**
	1883	...	...	...	3	4	2	...	5	1	13	8	2	**38**
	1884	1	...	...	1	3	...	...	...	...	11	8	4	**28**
	1885	...	...	1	1	5	6	...	...	2	11	1	8	**35**
	1886	...	...	...	...	7	1	2	3	4	4	6	2	**29**
	1887	...	...	2	3	3	1	...	2	3	11	7	6	**38**
	1888	...	...	1	3	9	1	...	...	5	5	6	3	**33**
	1889	...	...	...	4	5	1	...	4	11	4	3	2	**34**
	AVERAGE—1870-89.	...	...	**1**	**2**	**5**	**1**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**7**	**6**	**2**	**30**
	1890	...	...	7	6	7	2	5	8	3	8	3	6	**54**
	1891	1	7	2	2	3	...	1	...	2	12	5	3	**38**
	1892	...	1	...	4	5	1	...	1	2	8	...	2	**24**
	1893	...	2	2	5	4	2	1	...	...	8	10	...	**34**
	1894	...	1	1	3	5	1	...	4	3	10	8	...	**36**

CHAP. IV.
RAINFALL.

Statement of Rainfall at different stations in inches—cont.

Recording stations.	Years.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.	Total.
Coimbatore.	1870 ...	0·37	...	1·54	0·87	0·92	1·96	1·83	0·40	3·27	3·08	2·57	0·70	**17·51**
	1871 ...	0·40	0·15	0·46	2·26	1·82	0·82	0·66	...	0·80	4·39	13·68	0·10	**25·54**
	1872 ...	...	0·04	...	3·15	0·40	4·91	1·25	0·60	3·29	3·74	5·58	1·29	**24·25**
	1873 ...	...	1·26	...	2·28	3·60	1·41	1·58	2·19	1·91	7·86	0·69	0·09	**22·87**
	1874 ...	...	0·35	0·17	1·80	3·04	2·32	1·82	0·49	1·24	3·29	4·16	0·42	**19·10**
	1875 ...	0·04	...	0·99	1·37	2·64	2·73	1·34	0·20	0·42	11·24	1·59	0·33	**22·89**
	1876 ...	...	...	1·14	2·60	4·42	0·35	2·38	3·09	1·91	1·70	1·55	0·25	**19·39**
	1877 ...	...	...	0·56	0·55	2·42	3·68	0·03	0·57	1·94	12·99	2·50	2·15	**27·39**
	1878 ...	0·22	...	...	5·02	1·75	1·00	1·25	1·42	1·84	1·93	2·39	0·87	**17·69**
	1879 ...	...	1·01	2·35	0·44	3·64	0·16	3·63	0·35	0·78	4·52	1·93	0·27	**19·08**
	1880 ...	0·04	0·01	...	2·42	2·45	1·72	0·30	2·65	0·93	10·41	6·12	1·90	**28·95**
	1881 ...	0·08	...	0·13	...	5·60	0·97	0·62	0·57	0·19	7·16	6·68	0·64	**22·64**
	1882 ...	1·04	...	0·42	2·89	3·30	2·91	3·83	1·52	2·12	4·86	3·34	1·67	**27·90**
	1883 ...	...	...	0·63	0·17	2·10	0·86	0·75	2·98	0·24	8·77	4·66	2·27	**23·43**
	1884 ...	0·65	...	0·25	0·94	0·88	0·55	0·18	0·81	0·11	7·38	7·86	1·06	**20·67**
	1885 ...	...	...	0·84	0·38	2·47	4·05	0·87	0·87	1·97	4·28	0·58	3·90	**20·21**
	1886 ...	0·08	...	...	1·25	5·59	1·30	1·29	1·31	2·31	1·39	3·12	0·23	**17·87**
	1887 ...	...	0·60	1·64	1·24	1·52	2·26	0·94	0·58	0·38	8·50	5·63	3·84	**27·13**
	1888 ...	0·21	...	0·02	0·97	2·10	2·19	0·79	0·16	1·28	3·45	3·44	0·47	**15·08**
	1889 ...	0·10	...	...	2·78	1·27	0·49	0·83	1·69	4·22	2·00	1·28	0·33	**14·99**
	AVERAGE—1870–89.	**0·16**	**0·17**	**0·56**	**1·67**	**2·59**	**1·83**	**1·31**	**1·12**	**1·56**	**5·65**	**3·97**	**1·14**	**21·73**
	1890 ...	0·20	...	0·93	2·77	2·25	0·27	0·12	2·10	0·71	8·11	1·30	...	**18·76**
	1891 ...	0·39	2·22	0·32	1·39	1·56	0·55	1·32	0·40	...	13·16	0·53	0·64	**22·48**
	1892 ...	...	1·13	...	1·88	2·52	1·59	1·02	1·68	0·10	2·74	0·09	0·92	**13·67**
	1893 ...	...	0·51	1·84	1·85	2·59	1·78	0·99	0·68	0·20	3·89	10·92	...	**25·25**
	1894 ...	...	2·51	0·96	0·81	0·97	0·50	0·91	1·39	0·66	4·89	1·36	...	**14·96**
Polláchi.	1870 ...	0·90	...	1·45	2·23	0·03	4·31	3·88	1·41	1·11	2·68	1·85	0·69	**20·54**
	1871 ...	1·70	0·20	0·60	4·00	3·20	6·84	5·91	0·96	0·73	4·32	16·20	0·20	**44·86**
	1872 ...	...	...	...	3·15	2·42	4·00	6·88	1·10	4·17	0·80	4·29	1·13	**27·94**
	1873 ...	...	1·50	...	5·92	4·12	3·95	4·90	3·10	1·37	1·55	2·15	0·25	**28·81**
	1874 ...	...	0·15	0·20	3·60	2·20	8·10	8·30	1·95	0·30	2·55	4·08	1·15	**32·58**
	1875 ...	...	...	0·35	3·85	3·45	5·30	5·19	0·35	0·95	8·32	1·99	...	**29·75**
	1876 ...	...	...	0·01	1·15	5·30	1·20	4·35	0·90	3·50	3·10	0·45	...	**19·96**
	1877 ...	...	...	...	2·45	0·15	3·29	0·95	5·00	2·71	6·55	2·80	8·85	**32·75**
	1878 ...	...	...	...	2·80	4·25	3·45	4·87	4·59	4·10	0·97	2·27	1·60	**28·90**
	1879 ...	...	0·75	2·05	0·70	10·90	1·35	2·15	1·70	1·80	7·65	0·50	0·50	**30·05**
	1880 ...	...	...	...	4·79	2·72	3·91	4·08	0·80	0·50	5·50	16·22	0·70	**39·22**
	1881 ...	...	...	...	0·60	2·55	0·55	1·75	1·25	0·30	3·13	3·79	3·00	**16·92**
	1882 ...	0·45	...	0·58	2·47	2·75	11·07	12·32	3·45	0·75	2·10	3·30	0·80	**40·04**
	1883 ...	...	...	0·25	1·70	2·55	3·20	12·60	5·35	0·10	10·10	8·20	0·10	**44·15**
	1884 ...	0·15	...	0·45	1·75	2·85	2·25	2·30	3·35	1·30	9·21	8·41	1·43	**33·45**
	1885 ...	...	...	1·35	...	4·75	9·52	2·15	2·85	1·75	6·75	0·85	1·20	**31·17**
	1886 ...	...	...	0·75	0·55	6·95	2·05	4·60	1·65	0·95	0·60	1·83	...	**19·93**
	1887 ...	...	0·45	0·60	3·90	4·85	2·99	3·93	0·52	0·75	10·04	2·55	1·65	**32·23**
	1888 ...	...	...	...	1·60	3·05	2·95	4·00	0·88	4·40	6·51	4·42	0·23	**28·04**
	1889 ...	...	...	0·40	3·25	2·70	2·15	3·81	2·23	2·87	2·08	2·07	1·32	**22·88**
	AVERAGE—1870–89.	**0·16**	**0·15**	**0·45**	**2·52**	**3·59**	**4·12**	**4·95**	**2·17**	**1·72**	**4·73**	**4·41**	**1·24**	**30·21**
	1890 ...	0·31	...	0·05	2·89	0·60	1·33	2·05	1·54	...	17·46	1·02	0·24	**27·49**
	1891 ...	0·07	0·59	...	4·60	3·30	0·52	3·14	2·01	0·05	10·21	2·44	1·35	**28·28**
	1892 ...	...	0·96	0·36	4·20	5·54	1·26	7·00	2·94	0·82	1·40	3·83	0·58	**28·89**
	1893 ...	0·09	0·30	1·92	2·09	1·33	3·96	1·30	1·33	1·13	3·96	9·13	...	**26·54**
	1894 ...	0·03	0·41	0·72	5·41	3·45	1·36	2·73	1·59	...	5·33	1·65	0·05	**22·73**

Number of Wet days—cont.

Recording stations.	Years.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.	Total.
Coimbatore.	1870	1	...	2	3	3	5	6	2	4	6	6	2	**40**
	1871	1	1	2	8	2	2	2	...	3	6	11	1	**39**
	1872	...	...	...	3	3	5	3	3	9	7	8	3	**44**
	1873	...	4	...	6	6	5	7	5	2	12	2	...	**49**
	1874	...	1	1	3	7	6	5	2	4	5	8	2	**44**
	1875	...	...	1	3	2	7	3	...	2	15	3	2	**38**
	1876	...	...	3	5	7	1	2	5	4	7	4	1	**39**
	1877	...	...	2	2	4	8	...	3	4	12	7	4	**46**
	1878	1	...	...	5	5	3	5	5	3	7	7	3	**44**
	1879	...	2	4	1	10	...	5	1	2	7	3	1	**36**
	1880	...	...	...	6	7	3	1	4	2	11	14	3	**51**
	1881	...	...	1	...	11	3	3	2	...	5	11	1	**37**
	1882	3	...	2	4	7	10	12	4	2	9	9	3	**65**
	1883	...	...	1	1	6	2	4	5	2	11	10	3	**45**
	1884	2	...	1	2	1	2	...	4	...	10	10	3	**35**
	1885	...	...	1	1	6	13	6	2	3	8	2	8	**50**
	1886	...	...	...	2	8	4	4	3	6	5	6	1	**39**
	1887	...	1	3	1	4	7	4	1	2	16	7	9	**55**
	1888	1	...	...	1	6	3	3	1	2	9	10	3	**39**
	1889	1	...	...	4	2	2	3	3	9	7	3	...	**34**
	AVERAGE— 1870-89.	**1**	...	**1**	**3**	**5**	**4**	**4**	**3**	**3**	**9**	**7**	**3**	**43**
	1890	2	...	4	8	5	3	3	6	6	12	4	...	**53**
	1891	1	6	3	2	4	3	4	2	...	18	1	2	**46**
	1892	...	2	...	8	7	6	4	4	1	7	...	1	**40**
	1893	...	1	3	4	5	5	3	2	1	10	14	...	**48**
	1894	...	2	3	3	3	3	4	5	2	8	5	...	**38**
Pollāchi.	1870	1	...	2	3	1	12	17	7	5	6	6	3	**63**
	1871	3	1	2	8	4	13	15	5	3	3	13	1	**71**
	1872	...	...	...	3	3	13	11	3	9	2	11	4	**59**
	1873	...	4	...	5	6	14	12	10	7	4	3	2	**67**
	1874	...	1	1	4	6	15	17	4	1	4	6	2	**61**
	1875	...	...	1	4	5	7	16	1	4	10	5	...	**53**
	1876	...	...	...	3	5	3	11	•3	4	4	3	...	**36**
	1877	...	...	...	5	1	8	10	13	5	8	7	7	**64**
	1878	...	...	...	3	5	6	1	11	8	2	4	2	**42**
	1879	...	2	4	1	12	5	6	4	4	5	1	1	**45**
	1880	...	...	...	6	4	10	14	4	2	8	12	3	**63**
	1881	...	...	...	1	6	4	6	5	2	4	7	2	**37**
	1882	1	...	1	4	6	15	24	11	4	4	5	2	**77**
	1883	...	...	2	2	5	14	16	17	...	13	5	1	**75**
	1884	1	...	1	3	3	7	8	7	5	10	11	3	**59**
	1885	...	...	1	...	4	17	12	6	2	8	3	6	**59**
	1886	...	...	1	2	6	7	14	5	4	3	5	...	**47**
	1887	...	1	1	3	4	10	12	1	2	11	5	5	**55**
	1888	...	...	...	2	4	9	8	3	5	8	4	1	**44**
	1889	...	...	1	4	4	7	9	6	10	7	3	4	**55**
	AVERAGE— 1870-89.	...	**1**	**1**	**3**	**5**	**10**	**12**	**6**	**4**	**6**	**6**	**3**	**57**
	1890	2	...	1	2	7	...	...	7	2	8	3	2	**34**
	1891	...	...	1	3	3	2	13	5	...	16	4	1	**48**
	1892	...	2	1	6	9	4	14	8	3	3	4	1	**55**
	1893	...	2	6	5	5	13	5	4	5	11	12	...	**68**
	1894	...	1	2	9	4	6	13	6	...	8	6	...	**55**

CHAP. IV.
RAINFALL.

Fortnightly Abstract of Rainfall in the Coimbatore district for a series of years.

Year.	January.		February.		March.		April.		May.		June.		July.	
	First half.	Second half.	First half.	Second half.	First half.	Second half.	First half.	Second half.	First half.	Second half.	First half.	Second half.	First half.	Second half.
1866 ...	...	...	...	...	...	...	·68	·81	1·29	2·76	1·05	·97	·44	·81
1867 ...	...	...	...	...	...	·52	·06	1·86	3·25	1·57	·20	·31	1·63	1·09
1868 ...	...	1·66	·08	...	...	·15	·08	·62	1·36	2·23	3·15	·55	1·38	1·15
1869 ...	·16	...	·07	·16	·27	·01	·75	·38	·64	3·05	·53	·65	·30	1·44
1870 ...	·44	...	...	...	·01	·37	·20	·63	·77	·72	2·20	·92	1·05	·63
1871 ...	·59	·23	...	·61	1·91	...	·13	1·67	2·88	·66	·97	·22	·52	·89
1872 ...	...	...	·45	...	...	...	·64	1·00	2·32	·78	3·28	·48	·83	1·59
1873 ...	...	...	1·90	·07	·01	...	1·90	1·66	·73	2·37	·42	·30	·51	·56
1874 ...	...	·05	...	·32	·03	·10	·06	1·40	2·14	·64	·56	1·20	·85	1·46
1875 ...	...	·09	...	...	·04	·63	1·17	1·30	1·77	1·73	1·07	·80	·28	·67
1876 ...	...	...	...	...	·18	·22	·47	·75	3·87	1·12	·34	·25	·39	1·16
1877 ...	...	...	·10	...	·02	·46	·46	·59	·47	1·85	2·02	·37	·13	·25
1878 ...	·12	...	...	...	...	·01	·56	1·60	1·12	2·43	·91	·70	1·53	1·31
1879 ...	...	·14	...	·32	·02	1·86	·32	·29	·09	3·44	·30	·34	·63	3·88
1880 ...	...	·13	...	...	...	·08	2·26	·93	2·56	1·44	·27	·70	·46	·48
1881 ...	...	...	...	...	...	·15	·03	·35	2·20	1·87	·35	·14	·24	·06
1882 ...	·99	...	...	...	...	·30	1·10	·20	1·89	4·08	1·67	·85	1·18	1·26
1883 ...	...	...	...	...	·21	·15	·25	·75	1·00	2·71	·36	·52	1·21	·67
AVERAGE ...	**·12**	**·12**	**·14**	**·08**	**·15**	**·27**	**·61**	**·94**	**1·68**	**1·94**	**1·09**	**·57**	**·75**	**1·09**
1884 ...	·25	·25	...	...	...	·53	·12	·41	1·25	·89	1·13	·37	·26	·07
1885 ...	...	...	...	...	...	·50	·12	·21	·79	1·57	2·79	·64	·25	·10
1886 ...	·02	...	...	...	·10	·24	·01	·48	2·52	4·01	·87	·29	2·09	1·26
1887 ...	...	·04	·25	...	...	1·19	·74	2·12	·67	1·95	·70	·69	·33	·27
1888 ...	·02	...	...	...	·21	...	·39	1·35	1·26	2·17	·63	·31	·26	·23
1889 ...	·09	...	...	...	·13	·56	·32	4·33	1·72	1·19	·24	1·21	·74	1·49
1890 ...	·22	...	...	·01	·88	·44	·44	2·86	1·47	1·84	·66	·36	·13	·35
1891 ...	...	·16	·70	·74	·31	·30	1·20	·52	·12	1·74	1·42	·76	·14	·46
1892 ...	...	...	·01	·88	·02	·10	·33	2·12	1·94	2·04	·54	1·54	·78	·45
1893 ...	·01	·10	...	·85	2·00	·90	1·21	1·13	1·73	·43	3·09	·44	1·14	·82

Fortnightly Abstract of Rainfall in the Coimbatore district for a series of years—cont.

Year.	August.		September.		October.		November.		December.		Whole Year.	Average of Rainy Days.
	First half.	Second half.	First half.	Second half.	First half.	Second half.	First half.	Second half.	First half.	Second half.		
1866	·38	·67	·06	1·53	5·01	3·32	·71	1·33	2·85	·37	25·04	35·7
1867	·16	·98	2·09	·58	3·02	3·11	·14	·15	·01	...	20·73	31·8
1868	·28	·73	1·69	·83	2·18	1·57	·65	·98	...	...	19·58	35·2
1869	4·07	·38	1·63	·55	·97	3·71	2·49	1·52	1·40	·07	25·20	48·2
1870	1·41	1·63	2·71	·36	2·71	2·22	2·13	·19	·40	·03	21·73	42·7
1871	·29	1·34	1·64	·75	2·40	2·61	6·45	1·83	·14	·01	28·74	45·2
1872	1·29	1·34	3·66	·75	·84	1·04	1·29	3·20	1·16	·17	26·11	52·0
1873	·90	1·64	·13	1·84	4·71	2·97	·93	·57	·06	·12	24·30	46·5
1874	·83	1·23	2·54	·43	1·14	3·59	2·38	2·02	·53	·23	23·73	53·7
1875	·36	·91	·10	1·19	4·53	4·27	1·73	·24	·28	...	23·16	46·1
1876	1·60	1·34	·39	2·25	1·48	·68	·37	·46	·02	·11	17·45	35·5
1877	·51	·12	1·38	4·46	2·07	7·17	2·84	1·15	3·35	1·25	31·02	57·2
1878	1·04	2·93	2·05	1·12	2·20	2·60	1·32	1·11	·32	·39	25·37	55·7
1879	·31	·88	2·84	·36	·86	3·41	1·70	·10	·09	·12	22·30	48·7
1880	2·04	1·16	1·63	·01	3·48	3·74	3·27	7·65	·51	·39	33·19	67·8
1881	·58	1·86	1·01	1·55	·73	1·98	3·41	1·29	1·02	·37	19·19	45·0
1882	·57	2·83	·22	1·53	3·66	4·13	3·07	2·00	·40	·15	32·08	69·5
1883	4·14	·72	·44	·35	5·77	4·29	4·15	·83	1·77	·75	31·04	46·0
AVERAGE ...	**1·15**	**1·25**	**1·45**	**1·13**	**2·61**	**3·13**	**2·17**	**1·53**	**·78**	**·25**	**24·99**	**47·91**
1884	·78	·35	·33	·27	3·11	5·66	5·53	·08	·19	2·30	24·73	36·61
1885	·58	·31	2·04	1·42	5·87	5·07	·57	·85	1·13	3·69	28·50	39·75
1886	2·82	·63	2·57	1·30	·32	1·90	2·75	·02	·37	...	24·57	41·55
1887	·60	1·84	1·29	·19	3·34	3·98	2·69	1·43	·92	2·16	27·39	45·04
1888	·25	·23	1·35	2·65	1·41	2·49	3·06	·96	·59	·03	19·85	36·60
1889	·63	1·23	4·24	·77	4·72	·52	·65	1·23	...	1·24	27·25	42·53
1890	·38	1·98	·78	·35	1·98	6·92	2·45	·06	·46	...	25·02	38·09
1891	·41	·44	·11	·80	3·62	5·09	1·91	·04	·54	·76	22·29	37·00
1892	2·49	1·44	·08	·70	3·70	1·12	·14	·33	·36	·42	21·53	40·77
1893	·60	·36	·35	·91	3·68	3·10	5·59	3·71	...	·01	32·16	49·47

CHAP. IV. METEOROLOGY.

The capital of the district is one of the meteorological stations of Southern India, but owing to the proximity of Coimbatore to the Palghat gap, the statistics of temperature, humidity and wind direction are not applicable to the whole district without considerable qualification.

The observatory is at the civil dispensary at the eastern end of the native town and about ¼ mile from the railway. The latitude is 11° 1′ N., and the longitude is 77° 0′ E. The cistern of the barometer is 1,347·64 feet above sea-level. The barometer (Fortin's mercurial) is placed in a room at the east end of the hospital facing north. The anemometer is fixed in the southern end of the thermometer shed at a height of 14 feet from the ground, and the shed is erected at a distance of about 36 feet east of the hospital. The mean annual temperature, as determined by the observations of eighteen years, is 77·6°, which is lower than that of Madras or of the neighbouring districts of Salem, Trichinopoly and Madura. April has the highest monthly average (83·3°), while that of March and May is just over 81°; but even in April the mercury seldom rises above 100° and the nights are generally cool, the mean minimum of the month being about 72°. December and January are the coolest months, with a mean temperature of 73·7°. The lowest temperature observed in recent years was in January 1892 when the mercury fell to 57°. The average temperature of each month is shown by the following statistics:—

Month.	Mean temperature.	Month.	Mean temperature.
January	73·7	July	76·7
February	76·9	August	77·0
March	81·1	September ..	77·2
April	83·3	October	76·8
May	81·2	November ..	75·6
June	77·9	December.. ..	73·7

The average pressure of the air recorded at Coimbatore, after reduction to sea-level and constant gravity at latitude 45°, is 29·804 inches. The mean pressure is highest in January, and it falls steadily till June when the minimum is reached. It then rises steadily till the end of the year, the mean for December being about the same as that for January.

The prevailing winds are from the north, north-east and east in January and February. These continue into March, but we then begin to get southerly winds also, and these are still more frequent in April. In May the direction becomes more westerly, and south and south-west are the prevailing quarters until September when the wind begins to back round to the south, and later

CHAP. IV. METEOROLOGY.

on to the south-east. By November the north-east monsoon has thoroughly set in and this continues throughout December. The greatest mean velocity, about six and-a-half miles an hour, is found in June and July; indeed throughout the whole period of the south-west monsoon the force of the wind is strong owing to the Palghat gap. The north-east monsoon winds are much lighter, the mean velocity in the last three months of the year being about a mile and-a-half an hour.

The humidity of the air at Coimbatore is generally high. It is highest in October, November and December, the mean figures for those months being 83, 91 and 85 in 1894, saturation being taken as 100. These are markedly higher than the figures for Madras and much higher than those for Madura. The minimum is found in May, in which month the mean percentage was 77.

The mean cloud amount is highest in August and September and lowest in December and May. Throughout the two monsoons it averages about six and from January to May about four.[1]

SEASONS.

Buchanan mentions six seasons according to his informants at Bhavâni, viz., Vasanta, Gríshma, Varsha, Sarat, Hémanta, and Sasi Ritu; these each consist of two months, beginning with the Tamil month of Chittirai (April–May). They correspond to a great extent with the above description, the first being the kár rains, the second the rains of the early south-west monsoon, usually light on the east of the district, the third is the latter part of the same monsoon from August to September, the fourth is the early north-east monsoon which brings the heavy rains, the fifth the dewy cold weather, the sixth the rainless hot weather of February and March.

There are absolutely no data for asserting that any change in the climate, seasons or rainfall, whether for the better or for the worse, has taken place since the beginning of the century. Ryots' statements, like those of agriculturists generally, have always a pessimistic tendency; and as Coimbatore rustics are very inaccurate and of very limited general capacity, their memories and statements can in no way be depended on. The reports of Collectors made every year, and sometimes more often, show that, from the beginning of the century, the seasons have been extremely variable, and that the continual complaint has been that of scanty, short, and partial rainfall, especially of the kár and north-east seasons; details are given below:—

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[1] The proportion of cloud is estimated in tenths of the sky expanse, an overcast sky being denoted by 10 and a cloudless sky by 0.

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SEASONS.

Fasli.	Nature of the season.
1210	Very favourable in northern division, unfavourable in the southern.
1211	Information not available.
1212	Entire want of rain.
1213	Information not available.
1214	A distressing failure of rain; a few showers only fell about September. The north-east monsoon passed by entirely.
1215	Failure of later rains; early (Kálávadi) rains very favourable. Bad season, fourth of a series of most unfavourable seasons.
1216	Severely bad season. Early rains good generally, but in parts unfavourable leading to relinquishments; later rains failed, except partially. General outturn inferior, in some parts total failure, but no actual famine.
1217	Information not available.
1218	An adverse season; an epidemic which carried off above half the cultivating inhabitants.
1219	Generally very favourable season, leading to over-abundance of grain and low prices, there being no market.
1220	A deficiency of water and sudden fall in the price of grain.
1221	Wet crops a failure except under channels, dry land produced scarcely anything, and garden lands suffered greatly.
1222	Season not very favourable, but better than for some years past. Fever was dreadfully fatal in parts. There was great mortality among cattle from disease.
1223	On 10th September there were hopes of a favourable monsoon, but from that date to the end of the fasli, there was no rain except a few instances of a shower here and there. Not even the smallest tank was filled. The small quantity that was sent down from the hills during the equinoctial storms was insufficient to induce cultivation. The dry grain villages were in a disastrous condition. There was not a blade of grass to be seen. Consequently cattle were either dying or becoming too weak for any use. Many villages were burnt to the ground.
1224	Information not available.
1225	Unusually favourable season.
1226	Season backward and the rains disappointing. The wet lands produced no crop.
1227	The rains set in with violence late in the season. But they were too late to be of any use and only deluged the land, thereby injuring the dry crops.
1228	The season was extremely unfavourable. There was cholera in several parts of the district.
1229	Information not available.
1230	Season very unfavourable as the periodical rains of the north-east monsoon failed.
1231	The north-east monsoon was partial and unseasonable. Drought was severe in parts of the district.
1232	Information not available.
1233	Unpropitious season involving remission. North-east monsoon totally failed, and dry crops were all lost, as well as all tank cultivation; only gardens and river-fed lands gave crops.
1234	The failure of the early rains of the monsoon prevented the cultivation of the rice lands irrigated from the river Nóyil.
1235	The early part of the season was very favourable, but there was a partial failure of the later rains, and many of the tanks were left dry. The yield was, however, on the whole, more than average.
1236	Information not available.
1237	The season was one of the most trying known for many years. The north-east monsoon completely failed over the greater part of the district, and the south-west monsoon was partial. Dry crops failed altogether in parts. Prices were, however, unusually low. Cholera and fever prevailed in some taluks and murrain in others.

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SEASONS.

Fasli.	Nature of the season.
1238	Both the monsoons again failed; and even well water failed and garden crops suffered. Prices were, however, low.
1239	The season was very unfavourable.
1240	Rainfall more deficient than in the three previous faslis, all of which were very unfavourable years. The river Nóyil, hardly known to fail, was almost dry throughout the year. Consequently the wet cultivation of the taluks of Coimbatore and Palladam completely failed, and had it not been for some heavy rain at the commencement of the season, it would have failed in several other taluks. Wells and springs began to fail in some places. Prices were, however, very low.
1241	There was again a failure of both monsoons; and this following two years of severe drought affected the grain and garden cultivation beyond precedent.
1242	Greater distress than ever known; in June and July fair south-west monsoon in Pollâchi, partial in other neighbouring taluks; no rain in August, September and October; north-east monsoon failed entirely in November and December, hence wells, never known to fail, went dry; cotton failed everywhere. But for wet lands and gardens, and proximity to Malabar, ryots would have been greatly injured. Prices rose by over 40 per cent. owing mainly to larger demand from outside.
1243	Another bad season. The south-west monsoon gave early crops in the four taluks within its influence (Pollâchi, Palladam, Chakragiri, Coimbatore), but not in other taluks, which did not get any rain in August and September to sow cumbu; hence large areas of waste. There were heavy rains however in October, November and December throughout the district. Prices again rose by 30 to 40 per cent.
1244	Season fairly favourable up to October, but the south-west monsoon was only good in the northern division, and not in the southern where only a few showers fell. The north-east monsoon totally failed, rivers dried up, a large portion of crops under the Amarâvati and Nóyil rivers were lost and large areas of ploughed lands were left unsown. There was a fall in the prices of food-grains.
1245	Rains abundant and rivers full till November; this was succeeded by a drought which lasted till April. Wet cultivation was in consequence injured, but the general outturn of the harvest was, however, abundant. Prices were very low.
1246	No more disastrous season within the memory of man. No rain fell for the usual early dry crops; rain fell subsequently for ploughing and sowing, but there was a total drought in September and October, which caused great damage. November rains partial and too late, after that *nil*. General failure of wells, and dry outturn poor. Wet cultivation under rivers was good. There was a rise in prices. Cattle perished in considerable numbers from drought.
1247	Rains irregular. Dry outturn poor or bad; that of garden and wet lands good. There was a further rise of prices. The season was not on the whole favourable.
1248	Season generally unfavourable, but better than the last year. South-west monsoon partial; ploughed lands for early crop left unsown. Of the later crops none turned out well but those sown in July. The north-east monsoon was generally deficient, but less so in the southern taluks; elsewhere gram and cotton suffered much. Prices were, however, lower than in the previous fasli.
1249	Season favourable on the whole, though there was a deficiency of rain in parts. There was a further fall in prices.
1250	More favourable than the previous fasli. A failure of the rains in November was injurious to the standing crops. Outturn of dry crops half to three-fourths of the average. Prices lower than those of the previous fasli. On the whole the season may be considered one of rather more than ordinary advantage.

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Fasli.	Nature of the season.
1251	The supply of rain was generally seasonable and sufficient; there was consequently a considerable increase of cultivation. A further fall in prices.
1252	The season was very favourable; it commenced with advantage to the early crops, but failing in the months of July and August their produce was short.
1253	The rain in the early part of the season was abundant; the later rains were fully sufficient for an increased extent of cultivation in the wet lands dependent on tanks, while the harvest of the dry grains was successful.
1254	Ordinary season; from April to June it continued favourable. In July and August there was a considerable failure of rain. In September after a cessation of rain for two months, there were abundant showers, but at the usual period of the setting in of the north-east monsoon they failed. Outturn average generally. Prices below those of the previous fasli.
1255	The season was unfavourable; there were partial rains in the months of April and May; in the three following months they entirely failed except in Pollāchi and Coimbatore. There were scanty falls in September and November inclusive, and then the monsoon failed.
1256	Singularly adverse season; it was seriously unfavourable to the dry grain and garden lands throughout the year.
1257	Favourable; the south-west and north-east monsoons were of ordinary character.
1258	The season for dry and garden lands was favourable, and the two monsoons having been of an ordinary character in both the cultivation was successful.
1259	Not very favourable, both monsoons having been scanty even in those parts of the district most exposed to their influence; hence insufficiency in garden and dry lands. Tanks generally received only a scanty supply, and the wet lands under the Nóyil and the Amarávati experienced a scarcity of water. There was a fall in prices except in the case of paddy and castors.
1260	Rains partial and season not propitious. There was a partial failure of all kinds of crops. Prices, however, went on declining. There was an outbreak of cholera in places.
1261	Both the monsoons were scanty. There was a severe drought and tanks failed in most parts. Large extents of dry land were left waste, and the dry yield was below average. The yield of the wet and garden crops was also scanty. The losses would have been greater but for a general fall of rain in November. There was a rise in the prices of all food-grains except paddy. Cholera prevailed in six taluks, and the loss of cattle from disease was great.
1262	Season on the whole favourable; there was an increase in all kinds of cultivation and the outturn was average. There was a further advance in prices. Cholera prevailed in most parts of the district and was more fatal than in the previous fasli, but cattle mortality was less.
1263	Rains were partial and not sufficient to ensure a full crop. In October they were heavy, but not so in the succeeding months; hence the crops were far below the average, and in a majority of cases hardly sufficient for the maintenance of ryots and labourers. Prices ruled high. Cholera declined, but the loss of cattle owing to disease and want of pasture was considerable.
1264	The season was far from favourable; the rains were light and partial during the whole year except in the months of October and November. Dry and garden cultivation were less than in fasli 1263, both in extent and produce. The outturn in some places was as low as one-half or even one-third of an average crop. Prices rose by 21 to 37 per cent. and were 52 to 139 per cent. above the commutation rates. Public health was not satisfactory; cholera prevailed in several taluks. Cattle suffered greatly; the want of pasture was general and distressing. Numbers of cattle perished.

Fasli.	Nature of the season.
1265	Rains slight and partial throughout the year; the principal rivers did not receive their usual freshes and the tanks depending on them were not fully supplied. There was consequently a further falling off in the extent of cultivation. Prices of food-grains rose slightly, but that of cotton fell owing partly to want of demand. There was an improvement in the public health, but the want of forage occasioned much loss, or sale for low rates, of cattle.
1266	This was the fourth unfavourable and dry season. Rains were deficient and partial during the year, the average fall being only 16 inches; the principal rivers did not receive their usual freshes and tanks received but a scanty supply. Well cultivation was, however, largely resorted to. There was a slight fall in the prices of food-grains, but cotton rose in value owing to short production and increased demand from other districts. Cholera and fever prevailed with virulence in parts and cattle died in very large numbers from want of forage and from murrain.
1267	Rains again very partial and the dry crops suffered. The principal channels depending on the chief rivers, however, received full supplies and afforded sufficient irrigation; and the produce of lands depending on them was good. The prices of food-grains rose by 32 to 60 per cent. as compared with the previous years, and were 120 to 240 per cent. above the commutation rates. The price of cotton also rose by 40 per cent. Cholera raged with unusual virulence in the sub-division where it caused 12,383 deaths against 4,903 deaths in the whole district in the previous year.
1268	Season less unfavourable than in the previous year. The rivers had abundant freshes and the tanks received full supplies, but these came too late to be of much use. There was a slight fall in prices, which still continued very high and began to be felt by the non-agricultural classes; there was also a rise in the price of cotton. The district was not free from disease; fever of a mild type was prevalent, also cholera, but to a much less extent than in fasli 1267. Cattle suffered heavily from murrain. The price of working cattle was double that of three or four years before, owing to continued heavy losses during the period.
1269	Season far from unfavourable; rains not wanting from April to November, both inclusive; slight showers in December, February and March; none in January. Cultivation extended and outturn average. Abundant freshes; tanks generally full. There was a fall in the prices of food-grains, varying from 14 per cent. in the case of rice to 39 per cent. in the case of horse-gram. Public health was good, though cholera and fever prevailed here and there. There was again heavy mortality among cattle, the prices of which had now become so high as to be prohibitive to the poorer classes.
1270	South-west monsoon very scanty, and the north-east more or less a failure; the dry crops cultivated under the early rains failed in many instances, owing to the failure of both monsoons or gave a poor yield; seed was not recovered in many cases. Some of the rivers had only partial freshes. Most of the rain-fed tanks were empty and garden wells too began to fail in some places. There was a rise in the prices of food-grains and cotton. Fever of a mild type and cholera prevailed in some places, but public health was on the whole good. Murrain among cattle was still severe owing to failure of rain and pasture.
1271	Season bad. Both the south-west and north-east monsoons failed to a very great extent and what rain did fall was partial and unseasonable. A large extent of dry land was left uncultivated or yielded but a poor crop. There was drought in all taluks, especially the southern division (except Karúr), Coimbatore and Perundurai. In Pollächi many wells went dry; in Udamalpet wells so failed that 15 per cent. remission was given on garden lands besides 15 per cent. on dry. The rivers, however, had their usual freshes, and the paddy harvest was good as well as that of the garden crops. The price of

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Fasli.	Nature of the season.
	paddy rose but little, but those of dry grains rose by about 100 to 140 per cent. and ranged from 160 to 270 per cent. above the commutation rates. The price of cotton also rose towards the close of the year owing to the cotton famine in England. The continuance of high prices for a series of years and the short produce pressed heavily on the people and reduced the poorer classes to a low condition, and over Rs. 20,000 were spent in giving employment to the distressed. Cholera was less severe than in the previous year and public health was generally good. Murrain again broke out among cattle owing to want of rain and pasture and carried off large numbers.
1272	Season on the whole favourable, notwithstanding that the early rains were light and partial. Rivers and tanks received their usual supplies and the yield of all kinds of crops was good. Prices of food-grains fell slightly, but that of cotton rose by over 70 per cent. Public health was generally good, but murrain continued to prevail among cattle, and the mortality was double what it was in the previous year.
1273	Season on the whole favourable and outturn of crops good or average. Price of cotton again rose, and there was a further fall in the prices of dry grains. Cholera was prevalent during the year, and the condition of cattle was not much better than in the previous year.
1274	The south-west monsoon was deficient; the north-east was tolerably good, but was scanty and partial in November and December when much wanted. The yield of crops on dry lands and under rain-fed tanks was therefore below average. Prices of food-grains rose by about 10 to 30 per cent. and that of cotton by nearly 50 per cent. Cholera was prevalent in all the taluks, and the mortality among cattle was greater than in either of the two preceding years.
1275	South-west monsoon deficient and the north-east indifferent; yield of dry crops much below average, but that of garden crops was pretty good. Wet crops good under Cauvery and Bhávani; under Nóyil and Amarávati a good deal failed, and much suffered. Many rain-fed tanks were imperfectly supplied. Prices of food-grains again rose by about 9 to 39 per cent. and that of cotton by over 70 per cent. Cholera was generally prevalent and small-pox of a virulent type in Kollégál. Mortality among cattle was very severe and amounted to 40,000 against 26,500 in the previous year.
1276	The early rains were very deficient and the south-west monsoon a total failure. The result was that the agricultural produce was short, the prices rose high, and the poor suffered. Funds were, therefore, provided for feeding the starving poor and giving employment to able-bodied labourers. Fodder for cattle was scarce; grass was nowhere to be seen and even drinking water was deficient in many places. The imminent famine was, however, averted by the setting in of the north-east monsoon, the rains of which were general. Prices rose by 15 to 46 per cent. and were from 60 to 109 per cent. above the average of the ten previous years. Cholera was more fatal than in the previous year, and there was no improvement in the condition of cattle.
1277	Season unfavourable in parts not under the influence of the south-west monsoon, and the dry crops in the greater part of this area yielded but a poor outturn. Relief works had to be opened to give employment to the labouring population in some of them. The condition of the rest of the district was good. Prices of food-grains and cotton fell largely. Public health was generally good. There was a very considerable decrease in the mortality among horned cattle, but sheep died in slightly larger numbers than in the previous year.
1278	Season not favourable, but not very unpropitious and indeed better than that of the previous year; there was, however, a slight rise in the prices of food-grains. Public health was good, but cattle disease prevailed in parts, and the mortality among cattle was slightly in excess of that of the previous year.

Fasli.	Nature of the season.
1279	Want of seasonable rain in the early part of the year in the portion bordering on Madura. Local Fund works were vigourously carried on in Karúr and Dhárápuram to give employment to the labouring population; but the season was on the whole favourable. Prices of food-grains fell by 10 to 27 per cent. Public health was good and condition of horned cattle greatly improved.
1280	Early rains partial and scanty. South-west and north-east monsoons tolerably good, though deficient at end of year. Early crops not successful; later crops average. The season was on the whole favourable. There was a further fall of about 20 to 25 per cent. in the prices of food-grains; the price of cotton too declined. The condition of cattle was good, but cholera and fever proved more destructive than in the previous year.
1281	Season favourable. There was a further fall of 10 to 15 per cent. in the prices of food-grains, but the price of cotton advanced. Public health was good, cholera having almost disappeared; and the condition of cattle was satisfactory, but a storm in May destroyed 4,000 head of cattle in Kollégál.
1282	Rainfall, though fair, was, like the last year, unseasonable, and dry crops suffered from want of water. The produce was, therefore, deficient, and the prices of food-grains rose slightly. There was no cholera, but small-pox prevailed more or less in all taluks. Condition of cattle good.
1283	The rainfall was below the average and was deficient in November and December when it was most wanted; and dry crops and those under rain-fed tanks suffered in consequence. Wet cultivation under river channels was satisfactory. There was a further rise in the prices of food-grains. Public health was generally good, small-pox having somewhat subsided. The condition of cattle was also satisfactory, but a cyclone in May caused heavy losses, chiefly among the old and infirm stock and nearly doubled the mortality of the year.
1284	Season average. Rainfall below average, though slightly in excess of the previous year; and dry crops and those under rain-fed tanks gave only half yields. A further slight rise in prices. Public health on the whole good and the condition of cattle fair, though diseases prevailed in some taluks.
1285	Rainfall below average. The dry and garden crops suffered much from want of rain; some of the rivers also failed partially, and there was scarcity of drinking water in places. The outturn was much less than in the previous year and the prices of cumbu and ragi, two of the chief food-grains, rose. Large remissions were given on account of shávi and waste. Cholera broke out with virulence and cattle diseases were largely prevalent in many taluks.
1286	Season most unfavourable. The south-west monsoon was partial and the north-east a signal failure. Wells in garden lands failed in many places and the rivers did not receive their usual freshes. The crops cultivated in the later season almost entirely failed and large remissions for dry and wet waste and shávi were indispensable. The prices of food-grains rose by about 50 to 100 per cent. Cholera raged with greatly increased virulence and carried off nearly 27,000 persons. The condition of cattle was decidedly bad, and large numbers died owing to disease and want of fodder; the total mortality of the year was 131,727 against 75,132 in the previous year.
1287	Rainfall above average, but the season cannot be said to have been favourable. The early rains were scanty and ill-distributed; many wells failed and even drinking water became scarce. The east winds in the hot weather with drift sand choked many wells. The famine reached its height in August and the early part of September 1877. But the rains in September soon effected a change for the better. Lands were cultivated and the crops were promising well, but the rains in October damaged them, and this with a superabundance

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Fasli.	Nature of the season.
	of insect life resulted in a very deficient outturn. Prices of all food-grains except that of cumbu rose by 6 to 22 per cent. above the abnormally high prices of the previous year. Cholera was prevalent during the earlier half of the year, though the mortality from the disease was less than half that in the previous year; but small-pox was on the increase. The total mortality was 47 per cent. above that of the previous year and is to be ascribed to the prevailing distress, which told severely on the lower classes who were much reduced by privation and were thus more subject to disease. The mortality among sheep was 60 per cent. in excess of that of the previous year and was due to severe drought and want of pasture in July and August and the heavy rains of October and November. The condition of horned cattle was very bad during the period of distress, but at the end of the fasli they were in excellent condition.
1288	The early rains were partial or late and the north-east monsoon was a failure; and though better than that of the previous year, the season was only indifferent and the dry outturn poor. Consequently though the prices fell (23 to 43 per cent.), they were still high and did not recede to their normal level. Public health greatly improved, and there was decreased mortality under all heads, the total mortality being less than one-third of that of the previous year. Cattle mortality was more than a third less than in the previous fasli.
1289	Season very unfavourable. The early rains were insufficient and partial and the north-east monsoon failed. A large extent of dry lands was left waste, and the outturn of dry crops was poor and large remissions were granted. Prices, however, fell by about 20 per cent. There was a further improvement in public health and in the condition of cattle.
1290	Rainfall above average and season much better than that of fasli 1289. A further fall in prices. Public health good; but cattle diseases were prevalent and cattle mortality increased by 50 per cent. as compared with the previous year.
1291	Both the early and late rains were insufficient and partial, and the freshes in the rivers were scanty. The dry cultivation was consequently greatly affected in certain parts and dry remissions were granted. The prices of dry grains, however, fell owing to imports from other places. Public health was not good, but the condition of the cattle improved.
1292	Season good on the whole. Outturn fair. Prices slightly declined. Public health bad, and worse than in last year. There was an increase also in the mortality among cattle.
1293	The season was favourable on the whole, notwithstanding partial failure of early rains. Outturn of paddy good, dry crops average generally, cotton poor. A further deterioration in public health; condition of cattle good.
1294	Season bad; early rains scanty; the south-west monsoon a failure and the later rains untimely. Yield of dry lands was, therefore, poor. Wet and garden lands, however, gave a full crop. Prices rose high. Public health was worse than in the previous year. Cattle were generally free from disease, though there was an increase in the number of deaths due to want of pasture and fodder in the early part of the year.
1295	Rainfall unseasonable, though average. Outturn middling. There was a rise in prices. Public health was good owing to the absence of cholera. Cattle did very well.
1296	Rainfall timely and the season on the whole favourable. Outturn fair. There was a fall in prices. Public health and condition of cattle good.
1297	Season favourable. Outturn average. A further slight fall in prices. Public health unsatisfactory. Condition of cattle good.
1298	Rainfall deficient and season not favourable. Outturn of dry crops poor. A slight rise in the prices of food-grains. Public health and condition of cattle generally good.

Fasli.	Nature of the season.
1299	The season was on the whole favourable and the outturn middling or average. There was a rise in the prices of paddy and horse-gram, but those of other grains fell slightly. Public health not satisfactory. Condition of cattle generally good.
1300	Rainfall unseasonable and unequally distributed, though up to average, and season unfavourable. Outturn of dry crops poor or middling. There was a rise in the prices of all food-grains. Public health fairly satisfactory. Condition of cattle not so good as in the previous year.
1301	Rainfall deficient. The south-west monsoon was generally a failure; the north-east began well, but proved scanty afterwards. Outturn of dry crops very poor generally and that of wet crops poor in parts. Prices rose by 12 to 38 per cent. Public health was quite satisfactory. The condition of cattle improved.
1302	The early rainfall was favourable throughout the district and the south-west monsoon was also generally good, though deficient in October. The north-east monsoon was a failure, which was felt severely in Dhárápuram, Karúr, Udamalpet and Palladam, and to some extent in Erode, involving considerable loss of dry crops. The heavy rainfall in March relieved to some extent the anxiety which was felt about the three taluks first mentioned. The condition of crops was generally good and the outturn fair. Wet lands under some channels and tanks in Coimbatore, Dhárápuram, Karúr and Udamalpet suffered greatly, and considerable wet remissions were found necessary. The outturn of dry crops in the affected taluks was uniformly poor. There was a fall in the price of cholum, cumbu and ragi and a slight rise in that of paddy.

It will be seen from the above account that there has hardly been a year which could be considered thoroughly satisfactory from the ryot's stand-point. Very variable and partial kár rains, late and partial south-west monsoons, and very deficient north-east monsoons with occasional excessive falls, appear to have been as common in the first as in the second half of the century. Writing in 1865 the Collector tabulated the previous 62 years as having been 2 good, 11 fair, 40 unfavourable, and 9 really bad. In 1857 Mr. E. B. Thomas stated that the maximum fall for five years had been 18 inches, and hoped in future for "plentiful years, such as we formerly used often to have, 20 or 25 inches." In 1828 Mr. Sullivan spoke of the district as one "where a failure of the rains is a misfortune of frequent occurrence."

Famines.

Mr. Wedderburn's opinion, written before the great famine of 1877–78, was that the district was one of exceptional dryness; "the rainfall scanty and ill-distributed; raging winds blow for "half the year; a full crop is, I am convinced, the exception, "and half or quarter the average." Every officer who has served in the district for a few years will corroborate this opinion, which was formed after seven years' experience as Collector. With seasons producing such crops, and a soil that without irrigation is singularly infertile, it is not to be wondered at if, in times of

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drought, very great difficulty has been felt by the people, and it is probably due (1) to the wells, (2) to the area of cultivation as compared with population, (3) to reserves enforced by want of communications, that several scarcities were prevented from becoming disastrous famines. And now that population has so greatly advanced as to compel the cultivation of farms which by themselves are incapable of maintaining the cultivators, it is not surprising that seasons such as those of 1876–77 should result in almost unparalleled disaster. As will be seen from the foregoing summary, not less than two-thirds of the seasons since 1800 have been unpropitious and many almost calamitous. In some of these the south-west monsoon, which never altogether fails, was scanty and partial, but in most of them it was the north-east monsoon that failed. In many cases the droughts and scarcities were exacerbated by the consecutive occurrence of bad seasons, even for eleven years. Some of these bad years were actual famines; 1804–5 and 1806–7 were so bad that Government addressed the Collector and gave him enlarged powers; 1810–11 were years not only of scarcity but of desolating disease; 1833 was a famine (Guntúr famine), which in some parts of the presidency was calamitous; 1836–37 was the most unfavourable year since the district came under the British, and closed a series of twelve bad seasons, continuous but for 1835–36, which was a very favourable year; and 1857 closed a series of five very dry and unfavourable years.

The failure of both monsoons in 1861 laid waste large extents of dry land, and the prices of all dry grains nearly doubled. A short outturn coupled with high prices reduced the poorer classes to a low condition, and over Rs. 20,000 were spent by the State in giving employment to the distressed.

Five years later, or in 1866, the district again experienced another scarcity. The north-east monsoon brought in very little rain, while the south-west utterly failed. The outturn was short, prices of food-grains were high, and there was considerable suffering among the poor. Want of water even for domestic purposes was much felt. Arrangements were made for feeding the starving poor and for giving employment to able-bodied labourers. The average number of infirm persons relieved per diem during the month of August was 628; in September it was 1,558 and in November 1,909. The north-east monsoon of 1867 was good, and the district was saved from what appeared to be a severe famine. The following statement shows the numbers relieved in each month of the period of distress. The total expenditure on relief works was Rs. 19,145 and that on relief houses Rs. 11,798:—

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Famines.

Month.	Number employed on relief works.	Number in receipt of gratuitous relief.	Total.
1866.			
August	26	628	**654**
September	600	1,558	**2,158**
October	1,182	1,740	**2,922**
November	1,237	1,909	**3,146**
December	949	1,378	**2,327**
1867.			
January	490	1,161	**1,651**
February	112	789	**901**
March	5	659	**664**

The next famine, which occurred in 1876–78, was much more disastrous in its effects than any of its predecessors. The troubles began as early as 1875. The south-west monsoon rains of fasli 1285 were scanty and late, and the outturn of crops was consequently below average. The north-east monsoon almost failed, leading to a great want of water and loss of crops from drought; the kár rains of the hot weather of 1877 were very scanty and useless, while the south-west monsoon until September 1877 was almost a total failure and much of the country resembled a desert. The north-east monsoon followed with violence, and, though permitting cultivation, ruined a good deal of the cumbu by its profuseness, while it caused much sickness and death amongst constitutions enfeebled by want and privation. Briefly, after only a two-thirds crop in 1875, the land yielded over a vast area practically no crop during the cultivation season of 1876, while that of 1877 was so late that when rain fell from September onwards, the crops were in flower and ear in the heaviest part of an exceptionally heavy monsoon, so that much was lost and damaged. The result in sickness and death was too fearful to dwell upon.

The population had not suffered for many years from the checks of war, serious disease or actual famine, while an abnormal rate of reproduction was induced by the high prices of produce, which favoured the ryots and their labourers who were paid in grain, while the railways took away their surplus grain stocks and brought them cash. The result was that the cultivation of unprofitable areas was forced upon the rapidly increasing population, and the poorer strata, partly day labourers, partly petty ryots, increased as though scarcity were unknown, eking out the produce of these poor lands by daily labour; such lands in the best years

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would give but a scanty return since their pauper cultivators had no capital to invest, while in bad years the wretchedness of the cultivation resulted in total failure. Hence upon the occurrence of a rain failure, not apparently unprecedented, but unprecedented in the then state of population and probably short stocks of grain, myriads of acres of poor lands and much of the other lands gave little or no crop, and thousands of the poor were at once reduced to the starvation point. At first they managed to subsist by private charity, by the stores of grain in possession of their richer employers, and by petty labour; but as the intensity of the famine deepened, grain stores failed and prices rose; their friends and fellow ryots or employers could no longer help them, and early in 1877 the famine developed with alarming rapidity. The Collector (Mr. Wedderburn) had from December prepared for famine, and relief works and gratuitous relief were started as required. Until October 1877 all relief was under the civil department, but from that date works were handed over to the Public Works Department. The works undertaken were famine roads, usually the widening and straightening of village lanes and making them into regular roads, deepening of tanks, removal of prickly-pear to a small extent, clearance of irrigation channels, and so forth. Weavers were aided by Government purchasing their goods to some extent. Gratuitous relief took the form of money doles and of cooked food, and from September 1877 the plan of closed camps was strictly enforced. From this date the improvement of the season led to the gradual decrease of relief, and though the first half of 1878 was a very trying time, by far the worst pinch of the famine was over with September 1877. The sequelæ of the famine had however to be faced and the camps became hospitals; cholera slew its thousands, dysentery, famine fever, and anæmia their tens of thousands, and not until the end of 1878 was the famine fairly over. One more plague appeared in the shape of swarms of locusts, which, however, were not so destructive as in other districts.

The following table gives some graphic particulars regarding the course of the famine and its intensity and cost:—

Month.	Numbers on relief works.	Numbers in receipt of gratuitous relief.	Total.	Price of second-sort rice per seer of 80 tolas (about 2 lb.).
1877.				A. P.
January	20,159	60	**20,219**	2 1
February	23,229	1,193	**24,422**	2 8
March	23,890	1,917	**25,807**	2 0

Month.	Numbers on relief works.	Numbers in receipt of gratuitous relief.	Total.	Price of second-sort rice per seer of 80 tolas (about 2 lb.).
1877—*cont.*				A. P.
April	22,903	6,924	**29,827**	1 11
May	24,169	16,544	**40,713**	2 0
June	25,875	31,701	**57,576**	2 1
July	29,658	71,616	**101,274**	2 7
August	29,211	138,775	**167,986**	2 6
September	30,330	197,371	**227,701**	2 6
October	17,584	113,423	**131,007**	2 0
November	28,849	47,590	**76,439**	1 9
December	27,753	14,818	**42,571**	1 9
1878.				
January	25,848	11,521	**37,369**	1 8
February	31,136	14,003	**45,139**	1 7
March	27,660	13,467	**41,127**	1 9
April	26,581	11,484	**38,065**	1 9
May	34,978	10,275	**45,253**	1 10
June	41,753	11,969	**53,722**	2 0
July	36,211	11,666	**47,877**	2 0
August	21,022	9,110	**30,132**	1 11
September	14,858	7,882	**22,740**	1 10
October	11,667	5,194	**16,861**	1 7
November	3,818	1,105	**4,923**	1 7
December	1,097	145	**1,242**	1 7

The price of food is not, at first, precisely a gauge of actual, though a very good one of prospective, famine; to a great extent it means dread of the future, economy by house-holders, and storage by dealers. Many agricultural labourers were retained by their regular employers on lessened grain wages in hopes that the future might be less gloomy than the anticipation. But when the hot weather rains proved partial and useless, and finally the south-west monsoon of 1877 practically failed simultaneously with

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the general exhaustion among poorer ryots of stored grain and ordinary wealth, then the real pinch of true famine came, and labourers, petty ryots, and artisans flocked to the relief centres. The figures given above show a moderate percentage up to June 1877, especially on gratuitous relief; it was only after that date that distress became overwhelming. Considering that 1875 was a poor year, in which the outturn was estimated at about two-thirds of the average, and considering that while the south-west monsoon of 1876–77 was scanty, the north-east monsoon was an entire failure, so that the crops did not give above a quarter of an average yield, and the south-west monsoon crop of 1877 also failed in that there was little rain till September, the statistics of the famine, coupled with the opinions of the most experienced of the Coimbatore officers and with the facts of previous years, seem to point to the following amongst other lessons for the district: (1) that in Coimbatore two successive bad years, or one entire and absolute failure, will produce partial famine; (2) that such famine is not intense unless one or other, especially the second, of the years has failed to yield more than a quarter of the average; (3) that a failure to the extent of not more than one-third of the crop, even in two successive years, will not produce famine calling for special Government aid in the shape of relief, though it will produce scarcity and poverty, and probably increase the death-rate and liability to disease; (4) that even in years such as those of the famine, when a three-quarter failure followed a one-third failure, there is no serious pinch at first such as cannot be combated with fair success if a scheme of operations and proper works are ready; the stock of grain in hand economized, as it will be by fear of the future and by high prices, and eked out by various expedients, will suffice for some months, so that schemes may be properly organized to follow those undertaken as preliminaries; (5) that a favourable season immediately following the second bad season will extinguish the famine proper; (6) that even in a famine which is the result of seasons such as those of 1876–78, and of population so numerous, the extreme number likely to require State aid will not be over 10 to 12 per cent. at the worst period.

The wells of Coimbatore alone render possible these somewhat favourable inferences, which apply to a population between 1,600,000 and 1,800,000. The outturn alluded to is chiefly that of dry lands, since most of the wet and garden lands gave their usual crops throughout the famine, only tank lands, wet lands lying at the tail of an irrigation channel, and a moderate proportion of land under wells failing altogether, either by failure of the springs or by drifts of blown sand which choked them. A very large

proportion of the food crops is grown under wells; but for this the ruin would have been far greater.

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The small amount of village relief, as compared with the numbers in open camps or relief houses up to October 1877, is a curious feature of the Coimbatore famine. It is also to be noted that (*teste* Mr. Wedderburn) but few regular ryots came upon relief; it was the poorer strata, such as labourer-cultivators and the classes of miscellaneous occupation. The prices of food were as follow; they are compared with the average prices of the preceding five years :—

Grain.	Year.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Second-sort rice ...	1872–76 ...	13·64	14·93	15·20	14·46	14·43	13·94
	1877 ...	7·57	7·96	8·20	8·32	7·89	7·56
	1878 ...	9·33	9·64	8·85	8·94	8·62	8·01
Cumbu	1872–76 ...	26·94	29·71	29·05	28·03	26·84	26·22
	1877 ...	11·39	10·78	10·73	10·20	9·28	8·71
	1878 ...	21·20	20·64	17·38	16·07	16·01	12·83
Cholum	1872–76 ...	21·19	24·95	25·01	24·07	23·64	22·86
	1877 ...	9·15	9·87	10·33	9·60	9·04	8·59
	1878 ...	12·62	13·58	12·54	12·20	11·32	10·11
Ragi	1872–76 ...	27·19	31·21	30·89	29·70	29·52	28·45
	1877 ...	10·19	10·51	10·35	9·94	9·56	8·89
	1878 ...	14·02	14·01	13·22	13·74	12·26	10·71

Grain.	Year.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.
		9	10	11	12	13	14
Second-sort rice ...	1872–76 ...	13·79	13·24	13·23	13·07	13·13	12·28
	1877 ...	6·17	6·22	6·29	7·99	8·76	9·13
	1878 ...	7·74	8·27	8·59	9·78	10·01	10·04
Cumbu	1872–76 ...	25·83	26·12	25·81	25·83	26·15	26·20
	1877 ...	8·08	8·54	7·47	10·23	12·76	19·72
	1878 ...	12·85	13·47	16·00	20·38	20·63	21·04
Cholum	1872–76 ...	22·97	22·67	22·34	21·77	21·27	21·01
	1877 ...	6·83	7·42	7·12	10·36	11·01	11·13
	1878 ...	10·32	11·61	13·10	15·55	15·84	17·41
Ragi	1872–76 ...	28·05	27·73	27·29	26·98	27·10	27·12
	1877 ...	7·83	7·34	7·82	11·03	12·82	14·19
	1878 ...	10·04	12·09	15·49	19·64	20·54	20·98

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The net results of the famine in actual mortality are as follow:—

(1) By decrease found in 1881 below census of 1871	105,584
(2) By increment at 7·7 per mille per annum from November 1871 to November 1876	67,004
(3) By probable increment for two years (1879 and 1880)	24,600
Total ..	197,188

To consider the results in another way. But for the famine the population estimated by the normal increase of 7·6 per cent. in 10 years should in 1881 have been 1,897,297, or 239,607 more than were actually found. The difference in the two estimates is that the latter takes into consideration potential births among a steadily increasing population; the former shows the cost to the country in actual deaths, the latter its cost in actual and potential population.

The above is the least that can be put down to the famine; item No. 2 should probably be larger, as reproduction was, it is believed, abnormally active, and Dr. Cornish's coefficient of increase is 15 per mille per annum. The census of 1881 was taken in February 1881, and the increase of the years 1879 and 1880 must therefore be added as in item No. 3. To this mortality must be added the unrecorded and unspeakable catalogue of miseries and constitutional wreckage which only those who have witnessed famine with its concomitants and sequelæ can imagine. It is to be added as the one bright feature of the famine that, although there is an ordinary Tamil word for famine (panjam), the late calamity is universally spoken of and known by the people in this and other districts by the English word '*Relief*.'

The loss of cattle was enormous. The registered deaths numbered 131,727 in fasli 1286 against 75,132 in the previous year, and the actual loss must have been greater, for there was a terrible scarcity both of grass and water.

The total outlay on relief works was Rs. 23,68,768. The normal value of these works was only Rs. 17,84,074, so that Rs. 5,84,694 were spent in unremunerative relief. In addition to this a sum of Rs. 18,12,316 was expended by the State on the gratuitous supply of food.

Besides the direct relief afforded to the distressed poor, numbers were helped with advances of money for effecting agricultural improvements to their lands or for purchasing seed grain. The

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amount thus advanced was nearly $1\frac{1}{2}$ lakhs of rupees, while the number of persons assisted was 10,700. Advances were given to weavers to enable them to tide over the distress, the amount involved being Rs. 1,20,700. Lastly there were large remissions of land revenue, so that the whole cost of the famine to the State was, in this district alone, upwards of 50 lakhs of rupees.

The last famine we have to record is that of 1891–92. The distress which prevailed in the district during this period began as early as December 1890, and was due at first to the failure of the north-east monsoon of 1890–91. The total rainfall registered during the four months ending with September 1890 amounted to only 5·00 inches, the average for the same period during the preceding 20 years being 8·27 inches. This seriously affected cultivation, and large extents of land were left untilled. It was thought that considerable difficulty would be experienced by the agricultural labourers who were deprived of their usual work by the failure of the crops. At first the ordinary public works and minor irrigation works were slightly enlarged so as to provide employment for the distressed labourers. The number thus relieved, however, was small, viz., 200 persons in March 1891 and 370 in April. In the latter month there were good showers in parts of the district, which did much to improve prospects and to give agricultural employment. The numbers resorting to relief works fell to 208 in May, but in June they again rose to 423. There had been no rain in that month in the Udamalpet taluk, and the fall in the taluks of Coimbatore, Palladam and Polláchi had been very slight. Prices of food-grains had risen considerably, but they were still below scarcity rates. The condition of affairs became more critical with the failure of the south-west monsoon. This not only set in very late, but was seriously deficient in quantity, the total fall being only slightly above half the average. Sowing was greatly retarded, and there was in consequence a considerable fall in the area sown with dry crops and a continued want of agricultural employment. The number of persons relieved on works rose rapidly, and by September it was 6,912. The distress indeed became so severe that relief kitchens had to be opened for the help of those famine-stricken subjects who could not work. The numbers in receipt of gratuitous relief during this month amounted to 465, and this figure was nearly doubled in the following month. The rainfall of October at length brought relief to the district which had suffered so seriously since the commencement of the year. The November rainfall was far short of the average, but in December the fall was good and tended to improve the situation, enabling the relief works to be much circumscribed. By the end of January the relief kitchens were closed.

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The cycle of bad seasons was, however, not yet over in Coimbatore. The north-east monsoon of 1892–93 was singularly deficient, and the distress which arose in consequence was confined to a limited area in the Bhavâni taluk. Relief works were opened in April, but they were closed early in August.

The degree of the distress that prevailed in the district during the years 1891 and 1892 is shown to some extent by the following statement, which gives the numbers relieved in each month of the period of distress. The numbers are trifling compared with those of the great famine, but the scarcity was nevertheless severe, and it is fair to assume that the people were better able to meet the demands upon their reserves than they were in 1877. Account must, however, be taken of the large amount granted as loans for making wells, which is referred to below :—

Month.	Number employed on works.	Number in receipt of gratuitous relief.	Total.
1891.			
March	240	...	**240**
April	370	...	**370**
May	208	...	**208**
June	423	...	**423**
July	1,620	...	**1,620**
August	3,313	...	**3,313**
September	6,912	465	**7,377**
October	4,298	875	**5,173**
November	3,986	782	**4,768**
December	2,885	401	**3,286**
1892.			
January	...	63	**63**
April	542	...	**542**
May	704	...	**704**
June	647	...	**647**
July	278	...	**278**

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The total expenditure on famine relief works was Rs. 75,695, while a sum of Rs. 5,236 was spent on gratuitous relief. Besides these items of direct expenditure, the Government granted remissions of assessment amounting to Rs. 55,902.

Among the most important of the measures adopted for the relief of distress was the grant of advances to landowners for the improvement of their lands, the advances being utilised for the most part in the construction of wells. Nearly 12 lakhs of rupees were sanctioned by Government for this purpose, but of this amount only 8 lakhs were actually disbursed to the ryots. With this assistance over 5,000 wells have been constructed. About Rs. 74,000 were advanced for other land improvements; the greater portion of this amount was utilised in removing prickly-pear and in levelling and embanking lands. A sum of Rs. 80,000 was also advanced for the purchase of cattle fodder and seed grain.

In spite of the various forms of relief afforded to the people, which have been described above, there was considerable loss of population caused by the famine. The total deaths reported for the years 1891 and 1892 were 43,152 and 36,518 respectively, the average for the five years ending with 1890 being 31,113. The excess mortality during the two years was about 17,000, which may be roughly taken as the loss from famine. Much of this excess was due to cholera which raged severely in the district during the earlier period of the distress. The deaths from this disease numbered 8,063 in 1891 against 1,730, the average of five years ending with 1890.

The loss of cattle was great. A census of the agricultural stock of the district is taken annually in October, and the enumeration of 1892 showed that between October 1890 and October 1892 the stock had diminished by 127,590. Details are given in the margin. It will be seen that the losses occurred chiefly amongst the breeding animals, whilst a large decrease is shown in the young stock. The taluks which suffered most were Bhaváni, Karúr, Kollégál and Palladam.

Loss of—	Number.
Tilling cattle	9,684
Breeding cattle	66,666
Young stock	51,240
TOTAL ...	127,590

PRICES.

The annexed statistics of prices have been compiled in the office of the Board of Revenue. They show the course of prices since 1874–75 of rice, cholum, cumbu, ragi and paddy. The average monthly price of these for the whole district is given for each month of each year, and the mean annual price is given for each recording station.

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The following table gives the prices of the principal food-grains for periods prior to that with which the detailed statements begin; it is taken from the first edition of this manual :—

Comparative statement of average prices of grain from 1799.

Grains.	1799–1810.	1811–1823.	1824–1835.	1836–1840.	1841–1850.	1851–1860.	1861–1870.	1871–1880.
	Rupees per garce.							
Rice, first sort ...	223	245	245	244	215	341	515	448
Rice, second sort ...	196	207	218	218	194	299	456	395
Paddy, first sort ...	93	103	105	111	97	147	241	207
Paddy, second sort .	80	88	87	94	86	133	217	184
Cholum	91	102	115	119	99	168	269	226
Cumbu	82	89	87	98	83	132	210	178
Ragi	70	94	100	105	85	140	225	174
Ulundu (black gram).	164	203	208	198	194	280	500	439
Wheat	398	100	395	317	290	403	635	523
Horse gram ...	89	120	133	134	112	168	265	227

It will be seen that prices have fluctuated a good deal, but on the whole they have risen considerably. The advantage of this to the ryot is shown by the following comparison between the average prices for the five years ending 1893–94 and those at which the grain assessment of each field was commuted into money :—

Grain.	Commutation price.	Average of five years ending 1893–94.
	Rupees per garce.	
Paddy	125½	206
Cholum	139	250
Cumbu	104	208
Ragi	115	204

Average Prices of Food-grains in the Coimbatore District in seers of 80 tolas per rupee.

Years.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	Annual average.
Rice, second sort ... Standard average 14·4. Warning rate 11·5. Scarcity rate 8·6.													
1874–75 ...	13·2	12·6	12·8	12·8	13·5	13·7	14·0	14·6	14·5	14·3	14·7	14·0	13·8
1875–76 ...	13·8	13·8	13·0	12·9	13·7	13·4	12·9	12·8	12·9	12·7	12·7	12·2	13·1
1876–77 ...	11·9	11·1	11·6	10·7	8·7	7·8	7·6	8·0	8·2	8·3	7·9	7·6	9·0
1877–78 ...	6·2	6·2	6·3	8·0	8·8	9·1	9·3	9·6	8·8	8·9	8·6	8·0	8·1
1878–79 ...	7·7	8·3	8·6	9·8	10·0	10·0	10·5	11·1	11·5	12·0	11·4	10·6	10·1
1879–80 ...	10·5	10·4	10·6	11·0	12·5	13·1	13·3	13·3	13·8	14·1	13·7	13·8	12·6
1880–81 ...	13·6	13·5	13·6	13·9	14·3	14·7	15·3	15·8	16·0	16·2	16·5	16·0	15·0
1881–82 ...	15·3	13·5	13·9	14·3	15·2	15·4	15·5	15·9	16·0	15·8	15·6	14·8	15·1
1882–83 ...	14·7	14·3	14·3	14·9	15·4	15·6	16·7	15·8	16·6	16·4	16·0	15·8	15·7
1883–84 ...	15·5	16·1	15·5	15·8	16·2	16·6	17·0	16·4	16·2	16·0	15·5	15·0	16·0
1884–85 ...	14·1	13·5	13·4	13·7	14·1	13·5	12·6	12·5	12·8	13·0	12·9	12·8	13·3
1885–86 ...	13·1	12·9	12·9	13·4	13·5	13·4	13·6	13·6	14·2	14·2	14·0	13·8	13·5
1886–87 ...	13·9	14·0	14·0	14·5	15·3	15·7	15·2	15·1	15·3	15·5	15·4	15·6	15·0
1887–88 ...	15·2	15·2	14·9	15·3	15·6	15·4	15·6	15·5	15·5	15·6	15·2	15·0	15·4
1888–89 ...	14·5	14·2	13·9	14·0	13·9	13·5	13·8	13·7	13·6	13·7	13·5	13·3	13·8
1889–90 ...	13·2	12·8	12·6	12·8	12·9	12·0	12·2	12·7	12·6	12·6	12·2	11·8	12·5
Average for 10 years ending June 1890	**14·3**	**14·0**	**13·9**	**14·2**	**14·6**	**14·6**	**14·7**	**14·7**	**14·9**	**15·0**	**14·7**	**14·5**	**14·5**
1890–91 ...	11·3	11·2	11·4	11·4	11·4	11·7	11·4	11·3	11·3	11·2	11·2	11·2	11·3
1891–92 ...	10·9	10·4	10·3	10·9	10·8	9·9	9·9	10·1	10·1	9·8	9·9	9·9	10·2
1892–93 ...	9·7	9·9	10·1	10·1	10·0	9·5	9·4	9·7	10·1	10·3	10·3	10·3	9·9
1893–94 ...	10·4	10·4	10·1	10·2	10·3	10·9	11·6	12·2	12·6	12·5	12·7	12·2	11·4

Years.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	Annual average.
Cholum... Standard average 24·0. Warning rate 18·0. Scarcity rate 12·0.													
1874–75 ...	20·6	20·9	21·0	19·9	20·9	21·6	21·7	21·8	22·6	21·7	22·9	23·2	21·7
1875–76 ...	23·8	23·6	21·8	23·6	21·2	22·6	20·9	21·2	21·1	20·2	20·3	20·0	21·5
1876–77 ...	19·3	18·3	17·2	15·4	12·2	8·3	9·2	9·9	10·3	9·6	9·0	8·6	12·2
1877–78 ...	6·8	7·4	7·1	10·4	11·0	11·1	12·6	13·6	12·5	12·2	11·3	10·1	10·4
1878–79 ...	10·3	11·6	13·1	15·5	15·8	17·4	16·1	17·4	18·2	18·6	17·4	17·7	15·8
1879–80 ...	17·9	18·0	18·1	18·4	18·8	19·9	18·9	19·1	19·8	20·6	19·7	20·6	19·2
1880–81 ...	20·9	21·0	21·8	22·7	23·2	25·9	27·6	27·9	28·8	31·0	32·0	31·4	26·2
1881–82 ...	29·9	28·5	29·3	31·1	32·2	32·6	31·2	31·7	31·4	31·6	30·9	30·0	30·9
1882–83 ...	30·4	30·0	29·1	29·8	29·7	30·6	31·0	32·0	32·1	31·8	30·3	29·2	30·5
1883–84 ...	29·3	29·2	29·5	29·1	29·1	30·5	30·2	29·2	28·3	29·1	27·6	26·5	29·0
1884–85 ...	23·8	21·9	22·2	21·1	21·4	20·8	18·7	18·9	19·3	18·9	19·8	19·0	20·6
1885–86 ...	18·8	18·8	18·7	18·2	20·3	19·6	21·0	21·4	22·5	22·8	22·1	21·8	20·7
1886–87 ...	21·3	21·7	23·8	25·1	25·1	25·8	23·3	22·5	22·7	23·6	24·3	24·2	23·6
1887–88 ...	23·4	23·0	22·9	22·7	23·2	23·0	23·7	23·7	23·7	24·6	24·5	24·5	23·6
1888–89 ...	22·2	22·0	22·1	21·9	22·5	21·9	21·7	21·4	22·1	23·1	22·9	22·5	22·1
1889–90 ...	22·3	22·3	23·0	23·5	24·1	22·5	22·9	22·3	23·1	22·6	22·8	22·1	22·8
Average for 10 years ending June 1890.	**24·2**	**23·8**	**24·2**	**24·6**	**25·1**	**25·4**	**25·1**	**25·1**	**25·4**	**26·0**	**25·7**	**25·1**	**25·0**
1890–91 ...	19·0	19·4	19·4	18·5	18·7	18·8	18·6	18·4	19·4	19·4	18·7	18·1	18·9
1891–92 ...	17·2	17·9	15·9	16·5	16·2	13·1	13·6	14·7	15·0	14·6	14·5	14·3	15·3
1892–93 ...	13·5	16·0	16·7	18·9	18·6	17·0	17·1	17·4	17·7	17·7	17·6	18·2	17·3
1893–94 ...	18·8	18·8	17·9	17·8	18·8	19·7	19·6	17·9	19·2	19·5	19·5	19·4	18·8

CHAP. IV.
PRICES.

Average Prices of Food-grains in the Coimbatore District in seers of 80 tolas per rupee—cont.

Years.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	Annual average.
Cumbu... Standard average 29·0. Warning rate 21·8. Scarcity rate 14·5.													
1874–75 ...	24·2	24·9	24·7	26·3	27·2	27·4	29·2	28·0	29·2	28·3	27·3	26·9	26·9
1875–76 ...	26·9	26·3	24·3	26·1	24·4	26·1	24·5	24·1	23·6	23·2	22·5	22·3	24·3
1876–77 ...	20·7	20·1	20·4	18·4	15·2	11·1	11·4	10·8	10·7	10·2	9·3	8·7	13·8
1877–78 ...	8·1	8·5	7·5	10·2	12·8	19·7	21·2	20·6	17·4	16·1	16·0	12·8	14·3
1878–79 ...	12·8	13·5	16·0	20·4	20·6	21·0	19·9	19·5	19·4	20·7	19·9	19·1	18·7
1879–80 ...	19·1	19·7	20·3	19·5	21·5	24·8	24·0	22·7	21·5	22·2	21·5	22·2	21·9
1880–81 ...	23·1	23·7	24·4	24·1	27·5	35·3	37·7	38·1	38·3	36·4	37·7	38·8	32·1
1881–82 ...	35·7	34·3	35·4	36·5	37·1	38·6	40·6	40·9	39·4	38·3	37·4	36·4	37·6
1882–83 ...	35·8	35·5	35·7	35·9	36·4	38·0	39·4	37·4	36·2	36·0	34·6	32·5	36·1
1883–84 ...	33·0	34·2	35·3	33·0	33·7	36·4	36·3	35·3	34·5	34·2	32·3	31·6	34·2
1884–85 ...	29·4	25·7	26·5	25·0	24·8	24·3	22·4	21·9	21·7	21·8	20·2	21·2	23·8
1885–86 ...	21·3	22·3	22·2	22·5	23·5	25·6	26·5	27·4	27·2	27·4	26·1	26·4	24·9
1886–87 ...	26·4	26·8	27·8	28·9	30·7	32·3	21·0	26·0	26·0	26·0	26·2	26·1	27·6
1887–88 ...	26·7	27·0	26·1	25·7	26·4	28·3	29·7	29·6	29·4	28·7	27·6	26·6	27·7
1888–89 ...	26·1	25·2	24·6	25·1	25·7	27·4	27·5	26·6	26·2	26·4	26·9	26·6	26·2
1889–90 ...	26·3	26·6	27·5	29·2	28·9	26·2	27·1	27·0	26·5	26·1	25·7	24·4	26·9
Average for 10 years ending June 1890.	**28·4**	**28·1**	**28·6**	**28·7**	**29·5**	**31·2**	**31·5**	**31·0**	**50·5**	**30·1**	**28·9**	**29·1**	**29·7**
1890–91 ...	21·5	21·6	22·4	21·2	21·7	22·2	21·2	23·7	20·9	20·5	19·4	19·0	21·0
1891–92 ...	18·2	18·4	16·6	16·2	16·7	15·3	17·1	17·5	16·4	15·7	15·7	15·5	16·7
1892–93 ...	15·3	17·7	19·3	21·1	20·7	19·0	19·1	18·6	18·8	18·8	19·0	19·1	18·9
1893–94 ...	18·7	18·3	17·7	17·4	19·9	22·6	23·8	22·0	21·1	20·5	20·7	31·2	20·5

Years.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	Annual average.
Ragi ... Standard average 30·0. Warning rate 22·5. Scarcity rate 15·9.													
1874–75 ...	25·8	25·0	26·1	25·5	26·3	28·7	29·0	28·7	28·5	29·3	28·6	27·7	27·4
1875–76 ...	28·0	27·6	25·4	24·6	25·7	25·1	24·0	24·3	23·8	22·9	23·6	22·6	24·8
1876–77 ...	21·6	20·4	20·1	17·8	14·6	10·7	10·2	13·5	10·4	9·9	9·6	8·9	13·5
1877–78 ...	7·8	7·3	7·8	11·0	12·8	14·2	14·0	14·0	13·2	13·7	12·3	10·7	11·6
1878–79 ...	10·0	12·1	15·5	19·6	20·5	21·0	19·8	19·7	21·1	23·6	22·2	20·8	18·8
1879–80 ...	20·9	21·6	21·3	22·1	23·0	25·5	24·0	22·8	23·4	23·7	23·8	23·8	23·2
1880–81 ...	23·8	24·4	25·9	26·9	29·0	33·4	34·0	34·8	35·8	38·1	38·5	37·7	31·8
1881–82 ...	34·7	33·0	35·3	35·6	37·1	39·1	37·1	36·3	34·9	36·3	36·5	34·7	35·9
1882–83 ...	33·7	32·7	33·1	34·9	36·3	37·1	36·7	36·6	37·3	37·3	36·1	34·8	35·6
1883–84 ...	34·8	35·0	36·2	35·6	36·3	37·7	35·8	34·6	35·0	34·7	34·2	32·6	35·2
1884–85 ...	29·7	27·2	26·5	25·5	26·8	25·3	23·3	22·7	23·1	23·6	23·1	23·1	25·0
1885–86 ...	22·8	22·6	23·6	24·0	25·3	26·2	26·9	27·2	27·4	27·4	27·2	26·7	25·5
1886–87 ...	26·4	26·5	28·5	30·5	31·6	32·0	29·3	28·4	29·9	30·7	31·1	30·7	29·7
1887–88 ...	30·3	30·0	28·7	29·1	30·5	31·1	31·6	31·2	31·4	30·6	30·4	29·3	30·5
1888–89 ...	28·2	27·6	26·7	28·6	28·4	28·7	28·6	28·2	27·9	28·5	28·8	29·1	28·3
1889–90 ...	28·9	28·7	29·9	30·5	30·2	27·6	28·8	28·8	29·6	28·6	28·8	27·5	29·0
Average for 10 years ending June 1890.	29·3	28·8	29·4	30·1	31·1	31·8	31·2	30·9	31·2	31·6	31·5	30·6	30·7
1890–91 ...	24·6	24·5	25·5	24·4	24·7	24·4	22·9	22·5	23·0	23·2	23·3	22·4	23·8
1891–92 ...	21·0	21·2	18·4	19·7	19·0	15·3	15·1	15·4	15·6	15·4	15·7	16·3	17·4
1892–93 ...	15·9	18·6	18·8	21·7	21·6	19·4	18·8	18·8	19·0	19·4	19·9	19·9	19·3
1893–94 ...	19·9	19·7	18·6	18·8	20·2	21·3	21·2	21·1	21·5	22·8	23·4	22·6	21·0

Average Prices of Food-grains in the Coimbatore District in seers of 80 tolas per rupee—cont.

Years.		July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	Annual average.
							Paddy, first sort.							
1874–75	...	19·5	19·0	18·2	18·5	18·7	19·3	19·6	20·7	21·4	21·4	21·7	21·4	20·0
1875–76	...	21·7	20·7	19·1	18·5	19·3	19·1	18·9	19·6	19·6	18·9	18·8	17·9	19·4
1876–77	...	17·4	16·3	16·3	15·5	12·7	10·7	10·7	11·1	11·4	11·6	11·4	10·8	13·0
1877–78	...	9·2	8·9	8·5	10·6	11·9	12·2	12·4	13·8	12·9	12·7	12·9	11·7	11·5
1878–79	...	11·4	11·5	12·7	13·6	14·0	14·1	14·9	16·4	17·2	18·0	17·1	16·1	14·8
1879–80	...	15·2	15·9	15·4	15·7	17·1	17·7	18·7	19·4	20·3	20·5	20·2	20·0	18·2
1880–81	...	20·2	20·2	20·7	20·6	21·2	20·8	22·6	24·7	25·0	25·8	25·8	25·1	22·7
1881–82	...	23·2	20·0	20·5	20·6	20·9	21·3	21·7	23·8	23·7	23·7	23·1	22·4	22·2
1882–83	...	22·4	22·5	22·2	22·8	23·6	23·7	24·3	25·4	26·5	27·4	25·5	24·1	24·2
1883–84	...	23·8	23·5	14·2	24·2	23·9	24·6	25·2	25·5	25·4	24·4	24·4	23·6	24·4
1884–85	..	22·1	20·7	20·1	19·9	20·1	19·8	19·2	19·6	19·5	19·7	19·7	12·8	20·0
1885–86	...	19·4	19·3	19·2	19·3	19·8	19·9	20·1	21·2	22·0	21·7	21·5	21·2	20·4
1886–87	...	21·1	21·3	21·6	21·9	22·4	22·4	22·5	23·5	23·9	23·5	23·7	23·4	22·6
1887–88	...	23·1	22·8	22·3	22·7	22·7	22·6	22·7	23·3	23·2	23·2	23·1	22·5	22·9
1888–89	...	21·6	21·0	20·0	20·5	20·1	19·9	19·7	20·8	21·2	21·0	21·4	20·0	20·6
1889–90	...	19·7	19·6	19·4	19·6	19·7	18·2	18·9	20·0	20·1	19·4	18·9	18·5	19·3
1890–91	...	17·5	17·2	17·7	17·2	17·2	17·1	17·2	17·2	17·5	17·5	17·5	17·1	17·3
1891–92	...	16·3	15·8	15·3	15·5	15·6	14·0	14·2	15·2	15·6	15·2	15·5	15·4	15·4
1892–93	...	14·8	14·9	15·0	15·2	14·9	14·2	14·5	15·1	15·3	15·4	15·1	16·0	15·0
1893–94	...	15·9	15·5	15·0	15·3	15·3	15·7	16·3	18·0	18·7	18·9	19·1	18·6	16·9

Years.		July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	Annual average.
							Paddy, second sort.							
1874–75	...	21·2	20·6	20·5	22·0	21·9	22·2	22·0	23·4	23·9	23·6	23·8	23·7	22·4
1875–76	...	23·8	22·7	21·1	20·8	21·6	21·1	20·9	21·2	21·3	20·7	20·9	19·7	21·4
1876–77	...	19·0	17·7	18·5	17·6	14·6	12·0	11·9	12·4	12·6	12·5	12·3	11·8	14·5
1877–78	...	9·8	9·6	9·5	13·1	14·7	14·6	14·6	15·8	14·1	14·7	14·1	12·7	13·1
1878–79	...	12·2	12·6	14·1	16·3	16·3	17·0	17·1	17·9	18·4	19·3	18·9	17·6	16·5
1879–80	...	17·3	17·4	17·1	18·0	19·7	20·8	21·4	21·7	22·4	22·7	22·4	22·3	20·4
1880–81	...	22·0	22·5	23·2	23·7	24·9	25·4	26·4	27·1	27·3	27·8	28·5	27·4	25·5
1881–82	...	25·1	22·4	22·7	23·5	26·0	25·9	27·0	27·0	26·6	26·2	25·8	24·3	25·2
1882–83	...	24·0	23·9	23·7	25·6	28·7	27·8	28·1	27·9	28·3	28·8	27·4	26·3	26·7
1883–84	...	25·6	25·8	26·5	26·9	28·4	29·3	28·2	27·6	27·6	26·5	26·6	25·9	27·1
1884–85	...	24·4	22·7	22·0	22·0	23·2	22·6	21·3	21·3	21·4	21·5	21·5	21·5	22·1
1885–86	...	21·4	21·0	20·9	22·0	23·5	23·6	23·2	22·8	23·8	23·4	23·5	23·0	22·7
1886–87	...	23·1	22·8	23·4	24·7	26·2	25·8	25·3	25·3	25·9	25·3	25·5	25·4	24·9
1887–88	...	25·1	25·0	24·8	25·5	25·6	25·7	26·2	26·0	25·8	26·1	25·3	24·9	25·5
1888–89	...	23·8	22·8	22·5	23·4	23·4	23·1	23·3	23·1	23·3	23·0	23·6	22·2	23·1
1889–90	...	21·6	21·4	21·5	22·2	22·8	20·6	21·0	21·6	21·2	20·8	20·3	19·8	21·2
1890–91	...	18·7	18·4	19·3	19·0	19·0	19·1	19·0	18·6	18·5	18·6	18·5	18·0	18·7
1891–92	...	17·3	16·7	16·4	16·9	17·9	16·0	16·5	16·7	16·8	16·4	16·4	16·5	16·7
1892–93	...	16·1	16·2	16·5	17·4	16·7	15·5	15·8	16·4	16·5	16·7	16·9	16·8	16·5
1893–94	...	17·0	17·0	16·5	17·1	17·4	17·6	19·3	18·6	20·3	20·4	20·9	20·0	20·6

CHAP. IV.
PRICES.

Average Annual Price of Food-grains at each Station in the Coimbatore District in seers of 80 *tolas per rupee*—cont.

Years.	Kollégál.	Satyamangalam.	Bhaváni.	Erode.	Karúr.	Dhárápuram.	Udamalpet.	Palladam.	Coimbatore.	Polláchi.	District average.
Rice, 2nd sort { Standard average 14·4. Warning rate 11·5. Scarcity rate 8·6.											
1874–75	19·0	12·0	12·8	13·7	13·1	14·1	13·2	12·8	12·0	14·8	13·8
1875–76	13·3	12·1	12·6	13·5	12·5	14·0	13·9	12·5	12·0	14·5	13·1
1876–77	7·8	8·8	8·4	9·0	9·1	9·9	9·6	8·7	8·7	10·2	9·0
1877–78	7·0	7·9	7·6	8·4	8·3	8·0	8·4	8·0	8·1	9·3	8·1
1878–79	12·2	9·9	10·0	9·7	9·6	10·4	10·1	9·4	9·3	10·1	10·1
1879–80	14·8	11·1	11·6	12·0	13·9	13·2	12·9	11·8	11·9	12·9	12·6
1880–81	15·3	13·1	14·2	14·2	17·2	16·2	15·9	13·6	14·5	15·3	15·0
1881–82	13·0	13·7	14·4	15·3	17·5	16·6	16·7	13·6	14·9	15·5	15·1
1882–83	14·3	13·8	15·3	15·5	18·3	16·4	16·6	14·3	15·3	16·7	15·7
1883–84	15·9	14·1	15·3	15·8	18·3	16·8	16·9	14·5	15·1	17·4	16·0
1884–85	13·9	12·3	12·6	13·0	14·4	13·5	13·8	12·7	13·6	13·7	13·3
1885–86	12·2	12·9	11·9	14·1	14·7	14·4	14·4	13·2	13·3	14·3	13·5
1886–87	17·0	14·2	13·5	15·6	16·1	15·2	15·1	13·7	14·2	15·0	15·0
1887–88	19·3	14·4	13·0	15·4	16·6	15·7	15·1	14·2	14·5	15·4	15·4
1888–89	14·0	13·4	12·3	14·1	14·1	13·8	13·6	18·5	13·9	15·3	13·8
1889–90	14·7	11·6	11·5	12·8	12·9	12·7	11·9	12·5	12·7	13·0	12·5
1890–91	13·0	10·9	9·8	11·7	12·8	11·0	10·7	10·7	11·6	11·1	11·3
1891–92	9·3	10·1	9·6	10·6	11·3	10·4	10·5	9·8	10·5	11·1	10·2
1892–93	10·5	9·3	9·3	9·8	10·7	9·9	9·7	9·5	10·0	10·6	9·9
1893–94	11·9	10·3	10·5	11·4	12·5	11·6	11·1	11·1	11·3	12·0	11·4

Years.	Kollégál.	Satyamangalam.	Bhaváni.	Erode.	Karúr.	Dhárápuram.	Udamalpet.	Palladam.	Coimbatore.	Polláchi.	District average.
Cholum { Standard average 24·0. Warning rate 18·0. Scarcity rate 12·0.											
1874–75	...	27·7	24·5	21·0	22·1	16·9	23·0	19·2	20·0	21·4	21·7
1875–76	...	24·9	21·7	19·5	21·1	21·1	23·7	19·2	19·9	22·4	21·5
1876–77	...	11·1	11·4	11·1	12·1	11·4	12·5	11·5	12·8	13·9	12·2
1877–78	...	13·2	10·3	9·7	7·4	9·1	10·1	8·8	11·4	10·7	10·4
1878–79	...	18·1	14·5	15·3	16·2	15·7	16·4	14·8	15·6	16·0	15·8
1879–80	...	20·6	19·5	17·7	19·3	17·7	19·2	18·8	18·6	20·7	19·2
1880–81	...	29·0	26·1	23·8	31·4	22·8	25·5	23·3	27·0	26·9	26·2
1881–82	...	36·8	35·5	28·9	33·6	28·2	30·9	26·6	28·1	29·8	30·9
1882–83	...	38·0	30·9	28·9	31·5	28·8	29·8	27·3	27·1	28·2	30·5
1883–84	...	35·1	32·2	28·4	31·9	27·1	27·4	25·0	26·2	27·8	29·0
1884–85	...	21·1	25·2	22·5	21·8	17·4	19·2	18·5	20 2	19·5	20·6
1885–86	...	22·5	25·0	21·0	20·4	19·5	19·0	18·4	20·6	19·6	20·7
1886–87	...	26·8	26·3	22·9	22·9	22·2	22·5	21·4	23·2	24·5	23·6
1887–88	...	28·6	25·7	22·5	24·1	19·1	23·0	21·1	23·3	24·8	23·6
1888–89	...	25·8	21·3	20·4	21·8	20·7	23·5	20·2	21·2	24·3	22·1
1889–90	...	27·9	26·4	20·9	21·8	21·4	21·6	21·0	21·2	23·3	22·8
1890–91	...	21·2	21·7	18·4	19·0	17·2	16·5	18·7	19·1	18·1	18·9
1891–92	...	16·6	13·9	14·7	14·4	15·2	15·4	15·4	15·4	16·7	15·3
1892–93	26·7	19·2	18·1	15·2	14·8	15·8	15·9	16·0	16·7	17·4	17·3
1893–94	32·8	19·9	19·4	16·3	17·8	17·3	17·2	18·4	15·9	18·9	18·8

Average Annual Price of Food-grains at each Station in the Coimbatore District in seers of 80 *tolas per rupee*—cont.

Years.	Kollégál.	Satyamangalam.	Bhavâni.	Erode.	Karúr.	Dhárápuram.	Udamalpet.	Palladam.	Coimbatore.	Polláchi.	District average.
Cumbu... Standard average 29·0. Warning rate 21·8. Scarcity rate 14·5.											
1874–75	...	29·6	28·1	26·3	24·3	28·8	26·9	27·8	23·5	26·6	26·9
1875–76	...	26·3	22·6	22·9	23·1	26·1	26·4	23·5	21·9	26·2	24·3
1876–77	.	15·2	12·0	11·8	12·5	15·0	14·8	15·3	13·5	15·8	13·8
1877–78	...	13·3	13·5	13·7	12·3	14·0	15·4	15·3	16·1	15·2	14·3
1878–79	...	17·8	18·6	19·0	17·1	18·5	19·8	20·1	19·0	18·6	18·7
1879–80	...	19·9	20·2	19·6	20·8	21·8	23·5	23·5	22·3	25·3	21·9
1880–81	...	31·7	28·7	27·7	31·3	34·5	34·1	33·6	31·0	36·3	32·1
1881–82	...	37·9	34·7	34·8	37·2	40·4	41·3	38·4	34·8	38·4	37·6
1882–83	...	37·2	34·3	32·5	34·4	39·9	39·9	36·9	31·4	38·6	36·1
1883–84	...	34·0	31·1	31·3	34·3	37·4	37·7	34·3	30·0	38·1	34·2
1884–85	...	22·3	22·5	21·9	22·4	23·0	24·4	26·0	23·3	28·9	23·8
1885–86	...	26·2	23·3	23·9	25·9	24·9	24·5	28·1	23·5	23·7	24·9
1886–87	...	29·0	23·9	26·3	26·1	30·5	27·4	31·4	25·1	29·1	27·6
1887–88	...	31·5	23·6	25·3	25·3	30·1	27·3	30·0	24·0	31·8	27·7
1888–89	...	27·0	24·3	22·7	23·8	27·4	27·1	28·7	24·1	30·5	26·2
1889–90	...	30·8	27·9	25·3	22·9	26·8	25·9	27·9	24·0	30·1	26·9
1890–91	...	22·9	21·3	20·1	19·4	20·5	19·6	24·1	20·5	20·9	21·0
1891–92	...	16·8	15·4	15·2	15·2	16·3	18·5	18·0	16·7	18·9	16·7
1892–93	...	20·7	20·3	18·9	17·3	16·9	19·3	18·0	18·3	20·0	18·9
1893–94	...	21·4	12·9	20·1	18·9	20·1	21·3	22·7	17·2	24·6	20·5

Years.	Kollégál.	Satyamangalam.	Bhavâni.	Erode.	Karúr.	Dhárápuram.	Udamalpet.	Palladam.	Coimbatore.	Polláchi.	District average.
Ragi... Standard average 30·0. Warning rate 22·5. Scarcity rate 15·0.											
1874–75	38·1	30·1	25·5	24·1	26·8	28·6	27·0	24·8	23·7	25·7	27·4
1875–76	27·5	26·8	22·0	21·9	25·5	26·0	27·0	23·3	21·9	26·3	24·8
1876–77	13·2	13·4	11·6	12·3	13·6	14·8	13·7	13·2	13·2	15·9	13·5
1877–78	9·2	11·3	11·4	10·8	11·3	12·8	12·1	11·7	12·1	13·5	11·6
1878–79	24·6	17 9	18·8	16·9	17·7	19·7	18·5	18·6	17·5	18·1	18·8
1879–80	33·8	20·9	20·8	20·6	21·7	22·7	22·2	22·3	21·7	25·1	23·2
1880–81	34·4	32·9	28·3	27·6	33·8	33·7	34·4	31·5	31·1	32·7	31·8
1881–82	26·9	35·4	35·2	35·7	38·1	40·2	40·4	35·4	31·8	38·2	35·9
1882–83	32·7	34·6	35·7	34·4	36·9	40·5	37·9	36·6	31·0	35·2	35·6
1883–84	36·3	33·2	34·2	33·4	37·7	39·2	37·1	33·2	30·4	37·7	35·2
1884–85	26·4	24·5	25·9	25·3	26·0	24·4	24·0	24·9	24·5	24·2	25·0
1885–86	23·1	27·9	24·9	25·3	27·7	27·7	25·7	24·7	23·8	24·4	25·5
1886–87	29·9	33·3	27·6	28·6	29·7	31·8	28·6	31·2	26·0	29·9	29·7
1887–88	36·1	33·0	27·3	28 9	30·3	31·2	29·2	31·0	27·3	30·5	30·5
1888–89	28·2	29·9	26·7	27·0	26·9	30·0	28·4	28·2	26·4	31·4	28·3
1889–90	32·8	31·9	29·7	27·7	26·2	29·0	27·6	28·3	26·5	30·3	29·0
1890–91	30·8	25·4	22·4	22·9	23·0	22·5	21·2	23·2	24·0	22·3	23·8
1891–92	19·2	18·1	15·8	16·3	16·8	17·4	17·7	17·1	16·9	18·1	17·4
1892–93	23·3	21·2	19·7	18·7	17·5	17·6	18·5	18·9	18·3	19·5	19·3
1893–94	22·5	21·5	19·6	20·5	21·2	21·1	21·2	21·0	19·9	21·1	21·0

CHAP. IV.
PRICES.

Average Annual Price of Food-grains at each Station in the Coimbatore District in seers of 80 *tolas per rupee*—cont.

Years.	Kollégál.	Satyamangalam.	Bhavâni.	Erode.	Karúr.	Dhárápuram.	Udamalpet.	Palladam.	Coimbatore.	Pollâchi.	District average.
					Paddy, first sort.						
1874-75	25·1	18·8	18·7	19·9	20·4	21·0	18·6	18·7	18·9	19·5	20·0
1875-76	19·7	20·1	18·4	20·3	19·7	20·5	19·1	17·0	19·0	19·8	19·4
1876-77	12·1	12·6	11·7	13·5	14·4	14·0	13·3	12·5	12·8	13·2	13·0
1877-78	8·5	11·5	11·1	13·0	12·2	11·6	11·0	11·8	12·1	12·5	11·5
1878-79	16·9	13·9	15·1	15·6	15·1	14·8	14·5	14·0	13·5	14·2	14·8
1879-80	19·8	17·4	17·5	19·4	20·0	17·9	17·2	16·7	17·7	18·2	18·2
1880-81	22·9	21·8	21·0	24·3	24·9	24·6	23·0	20·9	24·0	20·0	22·7
1881-82	19·8	21·3	21·9	25·7	24·9	23·8	24·1	21·1	21·2	17·9	22·2
1882-83	25·4	23·2	23·6	27·0	26·1	26·1	23·5	22·9	23·1	21·3	24·2
1883-84	27·7	22·9	22·6	27·2	27·3	25·7	24·3	22·2	23·2	20·9	24·4
1884-85	22·2	19·5	18·8	21·2	21·1	20·0	19·4	20·4	20·4	17·5	20·0
1885-86	19·8	20·0	21·3	20·6	22·1	21·2	20·8	21·3	19·5	17·6	20·4
1886-87	25·7	21·4	22·2	24·5	23·9	23·2	21·9	22·2	19·9	20·9	22·6
1887-88	29·3	22·0	21·3	24·5	22·2	23·0	21·1	22·2	20·3	22·7	22·9
1888-89	21·8	20·3	19·4	23·0	20·6	20·9	19·9	21·1	19·4	19·6	20·6
1889-90	20·5	18·1	19·3	20·6	20·4	20·0	18·7	17·4	19·2	18·5	19·3
1890-91	20·9	17·0	16·2	18·2	18·5	17·7	15·6	16·8	16·4	15·9	17·3
1891-92	14·1	15·1	14·7	16·7	16·5	16·3	15·4	15·0	14·4	15·3	15·4
1892-93	16·2	14·0	14·0	16·3	15·6	15·4	14·9	14·3	14·7	15·2	15·0
1893-94	16·2	16·2	15·1	18·2	18·0	18·1	17·4	15·8	16·5	16·6	16·9

Years.	Kollégál.	Satyamangalam.	Bhavâni.	Erode.	Karúr.	Dhárápuram.	Udamalpet.	Palladam.	Coimbatore.	Pollâchi.	District average.
					Paddy, second sort.						
1874-75	28·6	21·4	21·1	21·4	23·8	24·8	20·4	21·2	19·8	21·6	22·4
1875-76	22·2	21·6	20·1	21·5	22·7	22·3	21·5	19·5	19·9	22·2	21·4
1876-77	13·9	14·0	13·1	14·5	16·8	15·2	14·6	14·3	13·4	15·0	14·5
1877-78	11·1	13·5	12·6	13·5	14·3	13·0	13·0	13·2	13·1	13·8	13·1
1878-79	20·1	15·8	16·6	16·7	17·1	17·2	16·9	15·6	14·7	15·0	16·5
1879-80	25·2	19·2	19·6	20·7	22·4	20·3	19·8	19·1	18·7	19·9	20·4
1880-81	26·9	24·1	24·4	26·1	29·2	27·2	25·0	22·9	27·4	22·3	25·5
1881-82	22·5	24·6	24·8	26·9	29·4	28·3	26·2	22·9	23·8	22·8	25·2
1882-83	28·1	26·9	26·2	28·7	29·7	28·6	25·7	24·4	24·7	24·1	26·7
1883-84	30·5	26·2	25·3	29·3	31·0	29·0	26·7	23·6	24·8	24·7	27·1
1884-85	25·1	21·5	21·1	23·3	23·4	22·1	21·1	21·8	21·7	20·4	22·1
1885-86	21·8	22·8	22·9	22·7	25·6	23·7	22·7	22·6	20·3	22·0	22·7
1886-87	29·0	25·3	23·6	26·2	27·3	25·4	23·5	24·6	21·2	22·9	24·9
1887-88	34·0	25·0	23·5	26·0	27·9	25·0	23·6	25·1	21·0	24·1	25·5
1888-89	25·0	22·8	22·3	24·1	24·3	23·5	22·5	23·2	20·3	23·1	23·1
1889-90	23·6	21·2	21·4	22·0	21·2	22·6	20·9	19·6	20·1	19·7	21·2
1890-91	22·9	18·8	17·4	19·3	19·9	19·4	17·0	18·0	17·1	17·3	18·7
1891-92	15·3	16·6	16·7	17·6	18·4	17·1	16·9	16·3	15·2	16·9	16·7
1892-93	17·9	15·9	16·0	17·1	17·0	16·6	16·5	15·8	15·5	16·4	16·5
1893-94	19·5	17·9	17·4	18·9	20·2	19·9	19·4	17·6	17·4	18·8	20·6

CHAPTER V.

PUBLIC HEALTH.

CHAP. V. VITAL STATISTICS.

THE registration of births and deaths in municipal towns is made by the municipal authorities, and elsewhere the duty is entrusted to the village accountant. In municipal areas house-holders are bound, by law, to report births and deaths occurring in their houses, but no such obligation is imposed on the villager, and the accountant is required to obtain the information as best he can. In small villages this is not difficult, but, in those containing more than 1,000 inhabitants, there must be a number of births and deaths which never come to the notice of the registering officer, however energetic he may be in endeavouring to make his register complete and accurate; and as in a large number of cases the village accountant is actuated by no such desire, it follows that the number of omissions is large. The statistics are inaccurate by want of supervision, by indolence, by disinclination to inquire about low castes, by residence of the registering officer elsewhere than at the village, and by temporary absence for two or three months at jamabandi. The registration is better done in towns than in villages, but it is defective in both, and the statistics are only useful for comparison of one year with another. The inaccuracy of the registers can be judged by the fact that according to them the excess of births over deaths during the interval between the last two censuses was 186,637, while the increase of population, as shown by the census returns, was 347,149 or nearly double. There is no reason to suppose that the census was more or less accurate in the one year than the other, and it is certain that there has been no gain by immigration into the district. The error then must lie in the registration of births and deaths, and it is greater in proportion in the case of births than deaths. It is probable that the true birth-rate is about 50 per mille per annum and the true death-rate about 35 per mille per annum. The registered mean birth-rate, however, for the years 1888–1892 is under 25 in Bhaváni, while the highest rate is 29·76 (in Dhárápuram). The death-rate is only 10·63 in Kollégál, and the highest rate is 19·22 in Polláchi. The rates[1] for the whole district are 27·52 for births and 17·73 for deaths. But in the Coimbatore and Karúr municipalities the rates are nearer the truth. In the former, the birth-rate is 35·50 per mille and the death-rate is 27·11 per mille. In

[1] These birth and death rates are calculated on the figures for the five years 1888–1892.

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Karúr the birth-rate is 38·38, while the death-rate is 28·97. Registration is best in the case of Hindus who have for the five years 1888–1892 a mean birth-rate of 27·81 and a mean death-rate of 17·81 per mille. For Musalmans the rates are 18·52 and 15·84, while for Christians they are as low as 17·60 and 12·98. Taking the figures, however, as they stand, some useful deductions may be made from them.

Birth-rate.

The birth-rate shows a small decline in 1888 and a heavy drop in 1892, viz., from 29·14 to 24·82 per mille. This last falling off in the number of births is evidently due to the bad season and high prices of 1891. The statement giving the births in each month shows that births are most numerous from July to November, while their number is lowest during January to April. This periodicity is observed throughout the presidency and occurs in a more or less marked form in most countries. Its causes are at present unknown.

Death-rate.

In the eleven years 1882–1892 the death-rate varies from 13·97 per mille in 1886 to 21·40 per mille in 1891. In the latter year the district suffered from a severe drought, and cholera committed great havoc among the people. The prices of food-grains rose enormously and there was scarcity in several parts of the district. The rate of mortality is lowest in June and April and highest in December and January. In other words, the hot weather is the most healthy season and the cold weather the most unhealthy. Nearly 25 per cent. of the deaths occur among infants under one year of age; but high as this proportion may appear, there can be no doubt that many of the deaths of infants escape registration, for the registered deaths give an infant mortality of 122 per mille for males and 104 per mille for females, while the actual rate is certainly double this.

Causes of death.

The following abstract shows the principal causes of death :—

Statement showing the Average annual number of Deaths from different causes in the District of Coimbatore during the years 1882–1892.

Causes of death.	Average number of deaths.	Percentage.
Cholera	2,892	9·09
Small-pox	1,232	3·87
Fevers	12,729	40·02
Dysentery and diarrhœa	1,338	4·21
Suicides	105	0·33
Wounds and accidents	446	1·40
Snake-bite and wild beasts	130	0·41
All other causes	12,935	40·67
TOTAL DEATHS ...	**31,807**	**100·00**

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VITAL STATISTICS.

Causes of death.

The returns on which the above statement is based are defective, for nearly 41 per cent. of the deaths are shown under the indefinite head of 'all other causes.' Of the specified diseases, fever is the most fatal. Cholera occurs almost every year and the deaths from this terrible plague are often numerous. The following table shows the number of deaths from cholera since 1851 :—

Year.	Number of deaths.	Year.	Number of deaths.	Year.	Number of deaths.
1851 ...	534	1865 ...	4,037	1879 ...	...
1852 ...	853	1866 ...	7,780	1880 ...	...
1853 ...	5,108	1867 ...	373	1881 ...	432
1854 ...	4,523	1868 ...	15	1882 ...	1,462
1855 ...	800	1869 ...	827	1883 ...	3,379
1856 ...	4,903	1870 ...	2,913	1884 ...	3,458
1857 ...	12,383	1871 ...	83	1885 ...	3,751
1858 ...	4,400	1872 ...	...	1886 ...	...
1859 ...	627	1873 ...	...	1887 ...	2,283
1860 ...	1,817	1874 ...	62	1888 ...	1,651
1861 ...	1,288	1875 ...	14,220	1889 ...	2,976
1862 ...	920	1876 ...	26,933	1890 ...	2,364
1863 ...	3,814	1877 ...	12,528	1891 ...	8,397
1864 ...	5,452	1878 ...	233	1892 ...	2,091

Small-pox shows no signs of abating in spite of the advance in vaccination, and the number of deaths, from this cause, in 1892 was the highest ever recorded since the great famine of 1877. The prevalence of small-pox is not made known unless a death occurs. The fear of repressive measures and the fact that the disease is still attributed to the personal presence of the goddess 'Máriamman,' who would be offended if medical aid were applied for, go a great way towards contributing to the number of deaths from this disease.

A considerable proportion of the accidental deaths is caused by drowning. That these are chiefly accidents is probable both from ages as reported and from the fact that they are by far the most frequent when there have been heavy monsoons and the wells are slippery and full of water. As much of the bathing is done in the wells, and as most of the water for domestic use is got from the numerous irrigation wells by descending steep, wet, ill-formed, and unprotected steps, and dipping by hand large vessels into the water, it is a matter for wonder that there are not more deaths considering the age and sex of the usual drawers of water.

The deaths from suicide are at the rate of 52 per million living; in England and Wales the rate is about 80 per million. In that country, the tendency to suicide is much greater among males than among females, while in Coimbatore, as in the presidency generally, the reverse is the case.

Statement showing the number of Births and Deaths in the Coimbatore District.

Year.	Mean population of the year.	Births.							Deaths.							Rate per mille of population of		Born dead among all classes.			Number of males to every 100 females.	
		Total births.			Class.				Total deaths.			Class.										
		Total.	Males.	Females.	Hindus.	Musalmans.	Christians.	Others.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Hindus.	Musalmans.	Christians.	Others.	Births.	Deaths.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Births.	Deaths.
1882	1,701,200	**42,170**	21,519	20,651	Information not available.				**25,354**	13,220	12,134	24,706	519	126	3	**24·79**	14·90	**609**	304	305	**104·1**	108·9
1883	1,733,700	**41,538**	21,255	20,283					**29,811**	15,405	14,406	28,955	702	154	...	**23·96**	17·20	**682**	361	321	**104·7**	106·9
1884	1,766,900	**43,633**	22,324	21,309					**31,646**	16,162	15,484	30,512	924	210	...	**24·69**	17·91	**606**	339	267	**104·7**	104·3
1885	1,800,800	**44,694**	23,009	21,685					**27,753**	14,493	13,260	26,828	735	190	...	**24·82**	15·41	**487**	267	220	**106·0**	109·2
1886	1,835,200	**50,291**	25,671	24,620					**25,644**	12,989	12,655	24,844	605	195	...	**27·40**	13·97	**627**	336	291	**104·2**	102·6
1887	1,870,400	**53,752**	27,394	26,358	52,392	1,061	298	1	**31,956**	16,444	15,512	31,020	686	250	...	**28·74**	17·09	**646**	342	304	**103·9**	105·9
1888	1,906,200	**51,251**	26,492	24,759	49,954	1,030	267	...	**27,989**	14,472	13,517	27,322	540	126	1	**26·89**	14·68	**541**	268	273	**107·0**	107·0
1889	1,942,700	**57,217**	29,206	28,011	55,934	984	299	...	**33,734**	17,426	16,308	32,906	669	159	...	**29·45**	17·36	**662**	377	285	**104·2**	106·8
1890	1,979,900	**57,564**	29,260	28,304	56,538	767	259	...	**36,297**	18,609	17,688	35,538	582	174	3	**29·07**	18·33	**578**	303	275	**103·4**	105·2
1891	2,017,800	**58,802**	30,098	28,704	58,088	483	231	...	**43,171**	22,366	20,805	41,821	1,054	284	12	**29·14**	21·40	**669**	381	288	**104·8**	107·4
1892	2,056,500	**51,044**	25,874	25,170	49,924	806	314	...	**36,523**	18,840	17,683	35,624	633	266	...	**24·82**	17·76	**551**	279	272	**102·8**	106·5

Vital Statistics for Municipalities in Coimbatore.

Year.	Name of Municipality.	Births.							Deaths.						
		Total births.			Class.				Total deaths.			Class.			
		Total.	Males.	Females.	Hindus.	Musalmans.	Christians.	Others.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Hindus.	Musalmans.	Christians.	Others.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1882 ...	Coimbatore ...	**1,318**	690	628	1,208	61	48	1	**1,102**	590	512	971	84	46	1
	Erode	**283**	154	129	205	57	21	...	**146**	64	82	116	18	12	...
	Karúr	**411**	212	199	360	44	7	...	**225**	115	110	210	12	3	...
	TOTAL ...	**2,012**	**1,056**	**956**	**1,773**	**162**	**76**	**1**	**1,473**	**769**	**704**	**1,297**	**114**	**61**	**1**
1883 ...	Coimbatore ...	**1,405**	693	712	1,303	62	39	1	**1,013**	557	456	910	59	44	...
	Erode	**343**	185	158	283	42	18	...	**296**	150	146	226	55	15	...
	Karúr	**425**	235	190	385	33	7	...	**511**	264	247	450	48	13	...
	TOTAL ...	**2,173**	**1,113**	**1,060**	**1,971**	**137**	**64**	**1**	**1,820**	**971**	**849**	**1,586**	**162**	**72**	...
1884 ...	Coimbatore ...	**1,475**	772	703	1,334	69	71	1	**1,015**	537	478	890	78	47	...
	Erode	**267**	157	110	220	31	16	...	**218**	104	114	169	44	5	...
	Karúr	**404**	195	209	361	40	3	...	**309**	153	156	278	30	1	...
	TOTAL ...	**2,146**	**1,124**	**1,022**	**1,915**	**140**	**90**	**1**	**1,542**	**794**	**748**	**1,337**	**152**	**53**	...

Vital Statistics for Municipalities in Coimbatore—cont.

Year.	Name of Municipality.	Births.							Deaths.						
		Total births.			Class.				Total deaths.			Class.			
		Total.	Males.	Females.	Hindus.	Musalmans.	Christians.	Others.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Hindus.	Musalmans.	Christians.	Others.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1885 ...	Coimbatore ...	1,600	814	786	1,460	77	62	1	1,293	679	614	1,197	46	50	...
	Erode	284	156	128	207	53	24	...	188	103	85	142	39	7	...
	Karúr	422	235	187	386	28	8	...	273	136	137	253	18	2	...
	TOTAL ...	2,306	1,205	1,101	2,053	158	94	1	1,754	918	836	1,592	103	59	...
1886 ...	Coimbatore ...	1,673	854	819	1,516	91	64	2	1,329	659	670	1,201	70	58	...
	Erode	277	150	127	218	40	19	...	147	80	67	121	19	7	...
	Karúr	456	243	213	410	40	6	...	219	112	107	204	12	3	...
	TOTAL ...	2,406	1,247	1,159	2,144	171	89	2	1,695	851	844	1,526	101	68	...
1887 ...	Coimbatore ...	1,665	839	826	1,547	59	58	1	1,367	720	647	1,205	58	104	...
	Erode	435	232	203	341	63	31	...	206	120	86	171	30	5	...
	Karúr	436	221	215	384	46	6	...	317	168	149	301	15	1	...
	TOTAL ...	2,536	1,292	1,244	2,272	168	95	1	1,890	1,008	882	1,677	103	110	...

Vital Statistics for Municipalities in Coimbatore—cont.

Year.	Name of Municipality.	Births.							Deaths.						
		Total births.			Class.				Total deaths.			Class.			
		Total.	Males.	Females.	Hindus.	Musalmans.	Christians.	Others.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Hindus.	Musalmans.	Christians.	Others.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1888 ...	Coimbatore ...	**1,545**	789	756	1,415	70	60	...	**1,028**	560	468	949	41	38	...
	Erode	**427**	245	252	401	65	31	...	**318**	151	167	266	41	11	...
	Karúr	**390**	209	181	354	28	8	...	**273**	145	128	244	28	1	...
	TOTAL ...	**2,432**	**1,243**	**1,189**	**2,170**	**163**	**99**	...	**1,619**	**856**	**763**	**1,459**	**110**	**50**	...
1889 ...	Coimbatore ...	**1,658**	858	800	1,503	82	73	...	**1,180**	614	566	1,066	54	60	...
	Erode	**442**	231	211	362	51	29	...	**297**	168	129	247	42	8	...
	Karúr	**404**	218	186	353	42	9	...	**255**	138	117	228	25	2	...
	TOTAL ...	**2,504**	**1,307**	**1,197**	**2,218**	**175**	**111**	...	**1,732**	**920**	**812**	**1,541**	**121**	**70**	...
1890 ..	Coimbatore ...	**1,821**	954	867	1,627	119	75	...	**1,382**	695	687	1,235	75	72	...
	Erode	**383**	200	183	315	48	20	...	**315**	134	181	257	51	7	...
	Karúr	**438**	227	211	381	37	20	...	**425**	220	205	379	38	8	...
	TOTAL ...	**2,642**	**1,381**	**1,261**	**2,323**	**204**	**115**	...	**2,122**	**1,049**	**1,073**	**1,871**	**164**	**87**	...

Vital Statistics for Municipalities in Coimbatore—cont.

Year.	Name of Municipality.	Births.							Deaths.						
		Total births.			Class.				Total deaths.			Class.			
		Total.	Males.	Females.	Hindus.	Musalmans.	Christians.	Others.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Hindus.	Musalmans.	Christians.	Others.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1891 ...	Coimbatore ...	**1,616**	818	798	1,476	75	65	...	**1,433**	739	694	1,262	83	88	...
	Erode	**314**	153	161	265	31	18	...	**332**	165	167	276	47	9	...
	Karúr	**426**	230	196	382	31	13	...	**353**	166	187	305	39	9	...
	TOTAL ...	**2,356**	**1,201**	**1,155**	**2,123**	**137**	**96**	...	**2,118**	**1,070**	**1,048**	**1,843**	**169**	**106**	...
1892 ...	Coimbatore ...	**1,592**	809	783	1,409	95	88	...	**1,264**	681	583	1,123	65	76	...
	Erode	**315**	151	164	266	33	16	...	**268**	124	144	232	28	8	...
	Karúr	**405**	193	212	343	48	14	...	**251**	133	118	226	18	7	...
	TOTAL ...	**2,312**	**1,153**	**1,159**	**2,018**	**176**	**118**	...	**1,783**	**938**	**845**	**1,581**	**111**	**91**	...

*Statement showing the Number of Births * and Deaths * registered in each Taluk of the Coimbatore District.*

Taluk.	Births.											
	1888.			1889.			1890.			1891.		
	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Bhaváni	**2,774**	1,429	1,345	**3,079**	1,576	1,503	**2,898**	1,534	1,364	**3,408**	1,756	1,652
Coimbatore	**5,951**	3,097	2,854	**6,853**	3,470	3,383	**6,367**	3,220	3,147	**7,996**	4,109	3,887
Dhárápuram	**7,266**	3,729	3,537	**8,185**	4,177	4,008	**8,236**	4,101	4,135	**7,488**	3,864	3,624
Erode	**6,504**	3,357	3,147	**6,324**	3,148	3,176	**7,128**	3,598	3,530	**6,733**	3,398	3,335
Karúr	**5,452**	2,786	2,666	**6,295**	3,184	3,111	**5,567**	2,774	2,793	**5,350**	2,721	2,629
Kollégál	**2,163**	1,084	1,079	**2,561**	1,293	1,268	**2,154**	1,091	1,063	**2,657**	1,342	1,315
Palladam	**6,117**	3,233	2,884	**7,069**	3,693	3,376	**7,702**	3,969	3,733	**8,355**	4,331	4,024
Polláchi	**4,882**	2,519	2,363	**5,377**	2,762	2,615	**5,117**	2,621	2,496	**4,571**	2,355	2,216
Satyamangalam	**4,491**	2,321	2,170	**5,110**	2,610	2,500	**5,184**	2,599	2,585	**5,811**	2,932	2,879
Udamalpet	**3,707**	1,934	1,773	**4,144**	2,153	1,991	**4,143**	2,097	2,046	**4,119**	2,089	2,030
TOTAL RURAL AREA ...	**49,307**	**25,489**	**23,818**	**54,997**	**28,066**	**26,931**	**54,496**	**27,604**	**26,892**	**56,488**	**28,897**	**27,591**

* Exclusive of Europeans and Eurasians.

*Statement showing the Number of Births * and Deaths * registered in each Taluk of the Coimbatore District*—cont.

Taluk.	Births—*cont.*						Deaths.					
	1892.			Total.			1888.			1889.		
	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.
	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25
Bhaváni	**2,567**	1,357	1,210	**14,726**	7,652	7,074	**1,536**	840	696	**2,285**	1,198	1,087
Coimbatore	**6,845**	3,495	3,350	**34,012**	17,391	16,621	**3,479**	1,827	1,652	**4,612**	2,428	2,184
Dhárápuram	**5,904**	2,967	2,937	**37,079**	18,838	18,241	**3,575**	1,814	1,761	**3,974**	2,039	1,935
Erode	**6,082**	3,102	2,980	**32,771**	16,603	16,168	**3,557**	1,795	1,762	**3,415**	1,660	1,755
Karúr	**4,694**	2,393	2,301	**27,358**	13,858	13,500	**2,867**	1,456	1,411	**3,266**	1,648	1,618
Kollégál	**2,482**	1,285	1,197	**12,017**	6,095	5,922	**1,340**	677	663	**1,786**	920	866
Palladam	**7,236**	3,648	3,588	**36,479**	18,874	17,605	**3,412**	1,776	1,636	**4,212**	2,155	2,057
Pollâchi	**4,584**	2,255	2,329	**24,531**	12,512	12,019	**2,464**	1,259	1,205	**3,411**	1,805	1,606
Satyamangalam	**5,019**	2,568	2,451	**25,615**	13,030	12,585	**2,665**	1,400	1,265	**2,972**	1,545	1,427
Udamalpet	**3,936**	1,982	1,954	**20,049**	10,255	9,794	**1,965**	1,008	957	**2,288**	1,158	1,130
TOTAL RURAL AREA ...	**49,349**	**25,052**	**24,297**	**264,637**	**135,108**	**129,529**	**26,860**	**13,852**	**13,008**	**32,221**	**16,556**	**15,665**

* Exclusive of Europeans and Eurasians.

*Statement showing the Number of Births * and Deaths * registered in each Taluk of the Coimbatore District*—cont.

Taluk.	Deaths—*cont.*												Average rate per mille.	
	1890.			1891.			1892.			Total.				
	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Births.	Deaths.
	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39
Bhaváni	**1,954**	1,006	948	**1,825**	959	866	**2,261**	1,206	1,055	**9,861**	5,209	4,652	24·57	16·45
Coimbatore	**4,201**	2,152	2,049	**5,828**	3,118	2,710	**5,198**	2,724	2,474	**23,318**	12,249	11,069	26·12	17·91
Dhárápuram	**4,172**	2,127	2,045	**4,809**	2,458	2,351	**3,619**	1,887	1,732	**20,149**	10,325	9,824	29·76	16·17
Erode	**4,158**	2,169	1,989	**4,451**	2,249	2,202	**4,386**	2,235	2,151	**19,967**	10,108	9,859	27·93	17·02
Ḳarúr	**3,749**	1,942	1,807	**4,804**	2,472	2,332	**3,437**	1,774	1,663	**18,123**	9,292	8,831	27·22	18·03
Kollégál	**2,066**	1,076	990	**1,610**	838	772	**2,325**	1,196	1,129	**9,127**	4,707	4,420	27·15	10·63
Palladam	**4,434**	2,219	2,215	**5,689**	2,899	2,790	**4,808**	2,459	2,349	**22,555**	11,508	11,047	26·98	16·68
Pollâchi	**2,975**	1,563	1,412	**5,569**	2,916	2,653	**3,231**	1,602	1,629	**17,650**	9,145	8,505	26·71	19·22
Satyamangalam	**3,731**	1,943	1,788	**3,328**	1,737	1,591	**3,430**	1,849	1,581	**16,126**	8,474	7,652	27·83	17·52
Udamalpet	**2,605**	1,281	1,324	**3,160**	1,627	1,533	**2,277**	1,114	1,163	**12,295**	6,188	6,107	28·03	17·19
TOTAL RURAL AREA ...	**34,045**	**17,478**	**16,567**	**41,073**	**21,273**	**19,800**	**34,972**	**18,046**	**16,926**	**169,171**	**87,205**	**81,966**	**27·35**	**17·49**

* Exclusive of Europeans and Eurasians.

*Statement showing the Number of Births * registered in the District of Coimbatore in each Month during the years* 1888–1892.

Year.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.	Total.
1888	3,275	3,934	4,300	4,051	4,408	4,271	4,880	4,204	4,256	4,857	4,666	4,136	51,238
1889	4,341	3,952	4,582	4,131	4,493	4,907	5,137	4,793	5,021	5,550	5,275	5,023	57,205
1890	4,068	3,666	4,518	4,595	5,115	4,878	5,307	5,646	5,191	5,174	4,977	4,415	57,550
1891	3,719	3,926	4,147	4,569	5,317	4,719	5,400	5,550	5,778	5,933	5,218	4,515	58,791
1892	3,970	3,686	3,984	4,009	4,294	4,067	4,515	4,207	4,306	5,022	4,570	4,399	51,029
TOTAL ...	19,373	19,164	21,531	21,355	23,627	22,842	25,239	24,400	24,552	26,536	24,706	22,488	275,813
AVERAGE ...	3,875	3,833	4,306	4,271	4,726	4,568	5,048	4,880	4,910	5,307	4,941	4,498	55,163
PERCENTAGE BORN IN EACH MONTH ...	7·02	6·95	7·81	7·74	8·57	8·28	9·15	8·85	8·90	9·62	8·96	8·15	100·00

* Exclusive of Europeans and Eurasians.

*Statement showing the Number of Deaths * registered in each Month in the District of Coimbatore during* 1882–1892.

Year.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.	Total.
1882	2,362	2,202	2,128	1,880	1,828	1,762	2,135	1,831	2,060	1,919	2,191	3,046	**25,344**
1883	2,986	2,522	2,719	1,898	1,912	1,994	2,274	2,186	2,047	2,217	3,144	3,898	**29,797**
1884	3,593	2,768	2,090	2,053	2,073	2,021	2,204	1,959	2,076	2,338	3,188	5,271	**31,634**
1885	4,985	2,358	1,887	1,968	1,770	1,925	2,351	2,193	1,934	1,939	2,117	2,314	**27,741**
1886	2,208	2,023	1,878	1,774	1,850	2,052	2,314	2,170	2,181	2,265	2,286	2,632	**25,633**
1887	2,464	2,446	2,619	2,373	2,200	2,467	2,902	2,175	2,132	2,211	2,784	5,163	**31,936**
1888	3,553	2,538	2,186	2,055	1,867	1,946	2,083	1,977	2,018	2,328	2,607	2,828	**27,986**
1889	2,801	2,427	2,334	2,155	2,410	2,845	2,779	3,318	2,800	3,042	2,956	3,860	**33,727**
1890	3,699	2,946	2,700	3,024	4,336	3,191	2,658	2,624	2,655	2,628	2,732	3,091	**36,284**
1891	3,117	2,835	2,648	3,047	2,899	2,487	3,088	3,702	3,514	3,423	5,578	6,814	**43,152**
1892	4,531	2,939	3,226	3,315	3,167	2,716	2,894	2,777	2,582	2,723	2,585	3,060	**36,515**
TOTAL ...	**36,299**	**28,004**	**26,415**	**25,542**	**26,312**	**25,406**	**27,682**	**26,912**	**25,999**	**27,033**	**32,168**	**41,977**	**349,749**
AVERAGE ...	**3,300**	**2,546**	**2,401**	**2,322**	**2,392**	**2,310**	**2,517**	**2,446**	**2,364**	**2,457**	**2,924**	**3,816**	**31,795**
PERCENTAGE OF DEATHS IN EACH MONTH ...	**10·38**	**8·01**	**7·55**	**7·30**	**7·52**	**7·26**	**7·93**	**7·69**	**7·43**	**7·73**	**9·20**	**12·00**	**100·00**

* Exclusive of Europeans and Eurasians.

Statement showing the Number of Deaths registered from Different Causes in the District of Coimbatore during 1882–1892.

Year.	Cholera.		Small-pox.		Fevers.		Dysentery and diarrhœa.		Injuries.				All other causes.	Total deaths.		
									Suicides.		Wounds and accidents.	Snake-bite and killed by wild beasts.				
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.				Total.	Males.	Females.
1882	749	713	1,061	1,014	5,802	5,326	587	533	31	35	405	127	8,971	**25,354**	13,220	12,134
1883	1,779	1,600	704	698	6,630	6,215	731	667	27	45	430	133	10,152	**29,811**	15,405	14,406
1884	1,802	1,656	396	384	6,579	6,321	950	934	35	56	484	156	11,893	**31,646**	16,162	15,484
1885	1,983	1,768	179	160	5,630	5,148	758	611	41	57	496	155	10,767	**27,753**	14,493	13,260
1886	...	...	376	386	5,750	5,436	622	574	30	62	574	136	11,698	**25,644**	12,989	12,655
1887	1,189	1,094	722	785	6,692	6,210	706	654	45	45	413	145	13,256	**31,956**	16,444	15,512
1888	857	794	391	369	5,777	5,240	579	583	63	76	381	116	12,763	**27,989**	14,472	13,517
1889	1,686	1,290	419	381	6,621	6,316	830	711	47	66	429	159	14,779	**33,734**	17,426	16,308
1890	1,284	1,080	291	269	8,065	7,670	583	555	47	63	474	110	15,806	**36,297**	18,609	17,688
1891	4,555	3,842	949	946	7,197	6,715	713	733	53	79	418	91	16,880	**43,171**	22,366	20,805
1892	1,158	933	1,391	1,285	7,541	7,136	609	494	59	87	402	104	15,324	**36,523**	18,840	17,683
TOTAL ...	**17,042**	**14,770**	**6,879**	**6,677**	**72,284**	**67,733**	**7,668**	**7,049**	**478**	**671**	**4,906**	**1,432**	**142,289**	**349,878**	**180,426**	**169,452**
AVERAGE ...	**1,549**	**1,343**	**625**	**607**	**6,571**	**6,158**	**697**	**641**	**44**	**61**	**446**	**130**	**12,935**	**31,807**	**16,402**	**15,405**

*Statement of Deaths * according to Age in the District of Coimbatore during the years* 1883–1892.

Year.	Under 1 year. Males.	Under 1 year. Females.	1 year and under 5. Males.	1 year and under 5. Females.	5 years and under 10. Males.	5 years and under 10. Females.	10 years and under 15. Males.	10 years and under 15. Females.	15 years and under 20. Males.	15 years and under 20. Females.	20 years and under 30. Males.	20 years and under 30. Females.	30 years and under 40. Males.	30 years and under 40. Females.	40 years and under 50. Males.	40 years and under 50. Females.	50 years and under 60. Males.	50 years and under 60. Females.	60 years and upwards. Males.	60 years and upwards. Females.
1883 ...	3,496	3,096	1,983	2,000	981	887	708	570	830	817	1,504	1,656	1,549	1,396	1,487	1,146	1,288	1,160	1,570	1,673
1884 ...	3,886	3,578	2,375	2,315	983	891	747	618	697	749	1,404	1,623	1,617	1,381	1,389	1,129	1,299	1,224	1,755	1,974
1885 ...	3,249	2,726	1,699	1,561	804	693	630	489	698	700	1,418	1,650	1,610	1,369	1,408	1,064	1,313	1,147	1,656	1,857
1886 ...	3,887	3,542	1,719	1,644	554	532	412	402	423	528	994	1,187	1,174	1,154	1,192	916	1,145	1,048	1,483	1,697
1887 ...	4,470	4,084	2,330	2,346	827	799	631	466	566	665	1,334	1,526	1,487	1,460	1,572	1,051	1,334	1,188	1,881	1,919
1888 ...	4,005	3,482	1,873	1,862	666	553	529	445	517	551	1,199	1,388	1,375	1,266	1,272	973	1,244	1,136	1,790	1,860
1889 ...	4,678	4,082	2,398	2,417	980	897	656	502	660	686	1,507	1,633	1,714	1,522	1,501	1,157	1,410	1,265	1,916	2,146
1890 ...	5,105	4,467	2,270	2,179	919	829	608	471	685	748	1,491	1,813	1,879	1,580	1,851	1,439	1,698	1,595	2,096	2,561
1891 ...	5,138	4,412	3,674	3,465	1,543	1,402	929	705	898	939	1,973	2,195	2,205	1,905	1,897	1,428	1,705	1,549	2,389	2,801
1892 ...	4,761	4,308	2,916	2,785	1,060	945	625	532	653	625	1,517	1,641	1,765	1,486	1,704	1,300	1,570	1,457	2,263	2,602
TOTAL .	**42,675**	**37,777**	**23,237**	**22,574**	**9,317**	**8,428**	**6,475**	**5,200**	**6,627**	**7,008**	**14,341**	**16,312**	**16,375**	**14,519**	**15,273**	**11,603**	**14,006**	**12,769**	**18,799**	**21,090**
AVERAGE	**4,268**	**3,778**	**2,324**	**2,257**	**932**	**843**	**647**	**520**	**663**	**701**	**1,434**	**1,631**	**1,637**	**1,452**	**1,527**	**1,160**	**1,401**	**1,277**	**1,880**	**2,109**
Percentage of deaths at each age.	**25·54**	**24·02**	**13·90**	**14·35**	**5·58**	**5·36**	**3·87**	**3·31**	**3·97**	**4·46**	**8·58**	**10·37**	**9·79**	**9·23**	**9·14**	**7·37**	**8·38**	**8·12**	**11·25**	**13·41**

* Exclusive of Europeans and Eurasians.

CHAP. V.
HOSPITALS AND DISPENSARIES.

There are 20 hospitals and dispensaries in Coimbatore, which gives 1 to every 393 square miles and every 100,242 of the population, the corresponding figures for the presidency as a whole being 1 to every 319 square miles and every 80,430 inhabitants.

Hospitals.	Number of beds available in 1892.			Dispensaries.*
	Total.	Males.	Females.	
1. Bhaváni	9	7	2	1. Álándurai.
2. Coimbatore	43	23	20	2. Aravakkuric'chi.
3. Dhárápuram	6	4	2	3. Coimbatore Branch.
4. Erode	8	4	4	
5. Gópichettipálaiyam ...	4	2	2	4. Kángayam.
6. Karúr	8	5	3	5. Múlanúr.
7. Kollégál	4	2	2	6. Sámpalli.
8. Méttuppálaiyam ...	4	2	2	7. Tiruppúr.
9. Polláchi	36	18	18	8. Véttaikkáranpudúr.
10. Palladam	4	2	2	
11. Satyamangalam ...	4	2	2	
12. Udamalpet	6	4	2	
TOTAL ...	136	75	61	

* Another dispensary has since been opened at Hanúr.

The Coimbatore hospital was founded in 1850, that at Polláchi in 1858 and that at Satyamangalam in 1864. From the starting of the Local Fund Board in 1871 there has been a steady increase in hospitals, and in 1892 there were, including the municipal hospitals at Coimbatore, Erode and Karúr, 20 of these institutions in the district. The hospital at Polláchi is of a class superior to the ordinary dispensary and has accommodation for 36 in-patients, with a lying-in ward. It was till 1883 in charge of a Native Assistant Surgeon, and did a great amount of good, patients coming from considerable distances in the Travancore, Cochin and Malabar territories. The building was erected by private subscription, and the hospital has an endowment of Rs. 17,700 ; it is now under the Local Fund Board, which holds the endowment in trust. The Assistant Surgeon, however, has been removed to head-quarters and a Civil Apothecary is now in charge.

The subjoined statement gives the number of patients treated in all the public medical institutions of the district during each of the five years ending with 1892 :

CHAP. V. HOSPITALS AND DISPENSARIES.

Statement showing the Number of Patients treated in Hospitals and Dispensaries during 1888–1892.

Year.	Number of patients.			
	Men.	Women.	Children.	Total.
1888	48,308	21,785	35,945	106,038
1889	54,052	22,765	40,763	117,580
1890	52,408	22,247	40,968	115,623
1891	53,835	23,303	43,879	121,017
1892	62,090	28,068	54,060	144,218

These figures show that the European method of the treatment of diseases has gradually gained favour with the natives of Coimbatore. It also shows the comparative reluctance of women to resort to skilled medical aid. The number of patients has risen from 106,038 in 1888 to 144,218 in 1892. Of the total number treated in the latter year, 30,179 were treated in the municipal hospital and branch dispensary at Coimbatore, 14,095 in the local fund hospital at Polláchi, 13,978 in the Karúr municipal hospital, and about 11,000 persons each in the hospital at Erode and in the dispensary at Véttaikkáranpudúr. Again, of the total number of patients treated in 1892, 142,918 were out-patients, while the in-patients numbered only 1,300. Between 1861 and 1870 the number treated averaged 10,075 out- and 463 in- patients. In-patients are not so much sought as out-patients, since there is no medical school attached to any of the hospitals; further, people are generally unwilling to come as in-patients, unless they are very poor and until, perhaps, it is very late. Proposals have been made for working hospitals on the cottage plan, cheap cottages for caste patients being erected apart from the dispensary building; this improvement for in-patients can hardly be overestimated, as it will bring many serious cases under scientific and skilful treatment. Taking the average of the five years 1888–1892, it appears that 76·51 per cent. of the patients are Hindus and 10·31 per cent. are Musalmans. As the Musalmans constitute only 8·66 per cent. of the entire population of the district, it would seem that they use the hospitals to a relatively greater extent than the Hindus, but the slight difference is probably due to the fact that Musalmans chiefly dwell in towns and large villages and it is in such places that hospitals and dispensaries are found.

CHAP. V. HOSPITALS AND DISPENSARIES.

During the quinquennial period 1888–1892 the average annual number of patients was 120,895, and the following abstract shows the most common diseases among these :—

Diseases of the eye	22,267
Ulcers	15,442
Diseases of the skin	13,347
Diseases of the ear	8,578
Malarial fevers	5,965
Rheumatic affections	4,453
Diseases of the nervous system	2,951
Dyspepsia	2,691
Unspecified diseases of the digestive organs ..	10,925
Worms	3,697
Unspecified diseases of the respiratory system.	3,288
Dysentery	1,095
Secondary syphilis	1,325
Diarrhœa	1,454
Diseases of the connective tissue	4,081

Except with regard to difficult labours, cholera and small-pox, cases of which seldom come to the hospitals, it may be broadly stated that this return shows the district diseases, except guinea-worm, with considerable accuracy, since there is in each taluk at least one dispensary, which is largely resorted to from all parts. Certain diseases, such as ulcer, show with undue prominence owing to the effect of the famine in 1877–78, and even in 1879 ; ulcer is always rife owing to a bad state of blood amongst many classes, but after the famine it was fearfully prevalent. The table shows that ophthalmia, chiefly conjunctivitis, ulcers, skin diseases, diseases of the ear, malarial fevers and rheumatic affections are, in the order named, the most prevalent diseases. Both the venereal diseases are tolerably common, but seemingly less so than in many other districts. Guinea-worm (dracunculus) is terribly prevalent, but is mostly treated by the people themselves, since nothing but patience and the application of simples for a considerable period can help the sufferer, so that hospital treatment is useless ; stimulating poultices are usually applied. Its prevalence is due probably to the abundance of step-wells, and their use for all purposes.

Cholera has long been known in the district and is mentioned in early reports ; small-pox has always been prevalent, and to this must be attributed very many of the cases of blindness observable as well as other infirmities ; small-pox is the usual answer to inquiries as to the cause of blindness, and indeed the scarred face too often tells its own tale. Small-pox deaths and outbreaks are very badly reported ; to judge by the records of deaths and by village reports it is rare, but, in spite of vaccination, it is only necessary

CHAP. V. HOSPITALS AND DISPENSARIES.

even now to go into a village and count the children whose faces bear the marks, to know beyond all cavil that it is still common, and that vaccinators' work is either ineffective, too late, or too scanty; vaccination registers are not a sufficient test of protection, and the most rigid care in, and scrutiny over, the work can alone give true and general protection. On the other hand, the decrease of blindness, as shown by the last census, is an encouraging feature and indicates that some improvement has resulted from the work of the vaccinators.

The average expenditure on hospitals and dispensaries during these five years was Rs. 33,604, contributed as shown below. The average cost of each patient treated was Rs. 0-4-5 :

Statement showing the Average Annual Expenditure during 1888–1892.

	RS.
From Provincial funds	2,237
From Local funds	24,580
From Municipal funds	5,930
From other sources	857
TOTAL ..	33,604

Statement showing the Number of Patients treated in the Hospitals and Dispensaries of the Coimbatore District during the years **1888–1892.**

Hospital or Dispensary.	Of what class.	1888.				1889.				1890.			
		Men.	Women.	Children.	Total.	Men.	Women.	Children.	Total.	Men.	Women.	Children.	Total.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Álándurai ...	Local Fund ...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...				
Aravakkuric'chi.	Do. ...	1,904	1,719	1,978	**5,601**	2,228	1,160	1,693	**5,081**				
Bhaváni ...	Do. ...	2,079	755	1,469	**4,303**	2,347	857	1,470	**4,674**				
Coimbatore ...	Municipality.	7,290	2,824	4,116	**14,230**	7,538	2,862	4,230	**14,630**				
Do. branch	Do. ...	5,618	1,718	4,403	**11,739**	5,788	1,709	5,305	**12,802**				
Dhárápuram ...	Local Fund ...	2,676	1,066	1,895	**5,637**	3,445	1,261	2,586	**7,292**				
Erode	Municipality.	2,826	1,908	3,215	**7,949**	3,472	1,592	3,871	**8,935**				
Gópichettipálaiyam	Local Fund.	1,362	403	538	**2,303**	1,447	452	805	**2,704**				
Karúr	Municipality.	3,886	1,576	3,318	**8,780**	3,895	1,563	3,558	**9,016**				
Kollégál	Local Fund ..	2,898	948	1,457	**5,303**	2,983	930	1,629	**5,542**	Information not available.			
Kángayam ...	Do. ...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...				
Méttuppálaiyam.	Do. ...	2,354	1,014	1,753	**5,121**	1,926	806	1,228	**3,960**				
Múlanúr ...	Do. ...	..	...	...	...	...	...	...	...				
Palladam ...	Do. ...	1,941	549	814	**3,304**	1,775	502	824	**3,101**				
Pollácbi ...	Do. ...	6,931	3,713	5,645	**16,289**	6,227	4,044	5,343	**15,614**				
Satyamangalam.	Do. ...	1,940	826	1,402	**4,168**	2,084	859	1,499	**4,442**				
Sámpalli ...	Do. ...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...				
Tiruppúr ...	Do. ...	...	...	...	...	1,123	400	381	**1,904**				
Udamalpet ...	Do. ...	2,290	1,302	2,465	**6,057**	3,569	1,457	2,859	**7,885**				
Véttaikkáranpudúr	Do. ...	2,313	1,464	1,477	**5,254**	4,205	2,311	3,482	**9,998**				
	TOTAL ...	**48,308**	**21,785**	**35,945**	**106,038**	**54,052**	**22,765**	**40,763**	**117,580**	**52,408**	**22,247**	**40,968**	**115,623**

Statement showing the Number of Patients treated in the Hospitals and Dispensaries of the Coimbatore District during the years 1888–1892—cont.

Hospital or Dispensary.	Of what class.	1891.				1892.			
		Men.	Women.	Children.	Total.	Men.	Women.	Children.	Total.
		15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
Álándurai	Local Fund ...	...	...	...	...	891	492	232	**1,615**
Arávakkurie'chi ...	Do. ...	2,172	960	1,787	**4,919**	2,360	997	1,611	**4,968**
Bhaváni	Do. ...	3,022	939	2,134	**6,095**	2,928	1,094	2,572	**6,594**
Coimbatore	Municipality.	7,209	3,068	4,141	**14,418**	8,480	3,511	4,489	**16,480**
Do. branch ...	Do. ..	4,861	1,744	4,757	**11,362**	3,459	2,883	7,357	**13,699**
Dhárápuram ...	Local Fund ...	3,522	1,412	2,896	**7,830**	3,551	1,440	3,216	**8,207**
Erode	Municipality.	4,269	1,850	4,110	**10,229**	4,606	2,092	4,918	**11,616**
Gópichettipálaiyam.	Local Fund ...	1,365	471	869	**2,705**	3,503	1,323	2,649	**7,475**
Karúr	Municipality.	4,279	2,087	4,159	**10,525**	5,176	2,994	5,808	**13,978**
Kollégál	Local Fund ...	2,479	1,086	2,037	**5,602**	2,713	920	1,993	**5,626**
Kángayam	Do. ...	509	181	187	**877**	1,244	313	427	**1,984**
Méttuppálaiyam ...	Do. ...	1,783	721	1,064	**3,568**	1,814	657	885	**3,356**
Múlanúr	Do. ...	...	...	...	...	505	209	169	**883**
Palladam	Do. ...	1,849	519	1,023	**3,391**	2,027	597	1,100	**3,724**
Polláchi	Do. ...	5,159	3,125	4,857	**13,141**	5,388	2,533	6,174	**14,095**
Satyamangalam ...	Do. ...	2,543	1,006	1,848	**5,397**	3,622	1,391	2,451	**7,464**
Sámpalli	Do. ...	...	...	...	...	468	276	226	**970**
Tiruppúr	Do. ..	1,898	559	1,178	**3,635**	2,064	754	1,451	**4,269**
Udamalpet	Do. ...	2,995	947	2,296	**6,238**	3,128	1,007	2,132	**6,267**
Véttaikkáranpudúr.	Do. ...	3,921	2,628	4,536	**11,085**	4,163	2,585	4,200	**10,948**
	TOTAL ...	**53,835**	**23,303**	**43.879**	**121,017**	**62,090**	**28,068**	**54,060**	**144,218**

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HOSPITALS AND DISPENSARIES.

CHAP. V.
INFIRMITIES.

Number of Infirm Persons in 1,000,000 *of the population.*

	Insane.		Deaf-mutes.		Blind.		Lepers.	
	1891.	1881.	1891.	1881.	1891.	1881.	1891.	1881.
Coimbatore ...	103	150	604	377	924	1,787	50	145
Presidency ...	*216*	*326*	*757*	*533*	*1,022*	*1,600*	*354*	*468*

The foregoing statement shows that there is relatively less of each of the four infirmities in Coimbatore than in the presidency as a whole. Of insane persons and lepers Coimbatore has a smaller proportion than any other district, and only Kurnool, Malabar and South Canara have a smaller proportion of deaf-mutes. The returns show a decrease of insanity, blindness and leprosy since 1881 and an increase of deaf-mutism, but the number of deaf-mutes was undoubtedly understated at the earlier census, while it is also possible that a number of people who were only deaf were returned in 1891 as deaf-mutes. The very low proportion of lepers is in accordance with the generally observed fact that leprosy is much less prevalent in dry districts than in those with a heavy rainfall. The great diminution of blindness is a most satisfactory feature. This infirmity, as already observed, is usually due to small-pox and the decrease in the numbers of the blind suggests a greater degree of success in grappling with this disease than is indicated by the mortality returns. The proportion of infirm persons in the various castes differs widely, but in most cases the numbers are too small to allow of any trustworthy deductions regarding the relative prevalence of any of the four maladies among each section of the population. In the subjoined statement only castes of which the district strength is more than 10,000 are included; for the absolute figures for these and other castes reference can be made to the census tables for the presidency. This abstract shows that in numerous instances the prevalence of an infirmity differs widely from the corresponding average for the presidency. We may, therefore, conclude that the various afflictions are due rather to local circumstances than to any peculiarities in the mode of life led by particular sections of the population:

Infirmity.	Number of infirm persons in	
	1891.	1881.
Insane ...	207	248
Deaf-mute ...	1,210	625
Blind ...	1,852	2,963
Leper ...	101	241

Statement showing for each Principal Caste the Number of Persons among whom one is afflicted with each Infirmity.

Caste.	Insane.		Deaf-mute.		Blind.		Leper.	
	Coimbatore.	Presidency.	Coimbatore.	Presidency.	Coimbatore.	Presidency.	Coimbatore.	Presidency.
Agamudaiyan ..	5,646	8,246	1,882	1,095	1,075	873	22,584	4,181
Kamma ...	27,822	6,077	1,391	1,185	1,855	965	27,822	5,318
Tottiyan or Kambalattán ...	...	12,134	1,902	1,387	1,268	1,289	...	11,200
Vakkaliga ...	9,457	8,833	1,630	1,718	525	583	11,821	12,367
Vellála	18,516	6,257	1,627	1,231	1,024	1,022	34,974	3,726
Holeya	18,512	10,372	6,171	1,729	1,089	803	...	848
Pallan	10,137	7,295	3,379	1,409	1,096	1,068	...	4,023
Palli or Vanniyan	8,145	7,574	1,118	1,267	1,629	1,194	57,016	2,393
Paraiyan ...	18,870	8,510	1,935	1,368	1,279	1,116	15,096	3,183
Véttuvan ...	43,399	13,559	2,712	2,805	1,550	1,312	14,466	5,811
Bráhman ...	1,778	2,607	1,165	1,156	913	663	8,447	2,904
Chetti	8,379	3,710	1,648	1,057	995	739	16,757	3,256
Labbai	2,590	3,026	2,913	1,048	2,119	872	11,653	3,079
Vadugan ...	5,581	6,460	1,953	1,222	930	1,040	19,535	9,044
Kammála ...	6,578	4,055	1,395	1,059	1,001	958	23,021	2,704
Ambattan ...	12,411	6,434	993	938	827	948	...	3,676
Dévánga ...	...	2,902	1,864	1,435	2,236	954	11,181	2,519
Kaikólan ...	9,375	5,787	1,172	1,179	1,250	980	9,375	2,461
Vannán	5,368	7,765	2,237	1,120	866	897	...	3,217
Idaiyan or Yádavan	...	6,474	1,276	1,019	1,276	814	...	2,143
Kurumban ...	10,261	6,109	2,052	1,507	832	911	15,391	7,304
Kusavan ...	5,881	5,181	1,470	1,003	1,357	840	...	3,768
Uppiliyan ...	11,210	12,310	2,242	1,679	1,601	1,539	22,420	18,466
Shánán	6,423	5,745	1,570	1,718	1,472	1,116	23,552	6,981
Chakkiliyan ...	16,055	11,994	1,715	1,378	1,359	1,075	9,812	5,412
Odde	10,769	6,113	1,900	1,385	1,405	1,321	16,154	7,054
Korava or Yerukala	...	5,566	3,104	1,421	887	954	...	4,606
Ándi	8,790	7,469	1,172	1,120	495	684	17,580	6,895
Lingáyat ...	7,927	3,431	3,171	1,334	793	624	...	7,390

SANITATION.

In all the municipal towns and in the unions a sanitary establishment is maintained. For the most part this staff consists of sweepers, who keep the streets clean and remove the house rubbish that is thrown into the dust-bins. In the Coimbatore and Erode municipalities scavengers are also employed by the authorities to remove the night-soil from the houses of those who will pay for this service, and the system is to be extended in both. There are a number of public latrines in each of the three municipalities, and these are freely resorted to by the people. Their contents are carted away to depôts situated outside the municipal limits and there they are either burnt or buried in trenches and sold as manure. In the majority of the small towns there are no arrangements of this kind, and domestic sanitary conveniences are either entirely absent or are in a very rudimentary stage. There are no water

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works in any of the towns, and the chief sources of the drinking-water supply are rivers, channels, streams, tanks and wells. Attempts are being made at conserving some of these, but the success is not great, and the water is very often contaminated and is thus a fruitful source of disease. In villages no sanitary measures are taken, except that prickly-pear is occasionally cleared away from the immediate vicinity of houses to prevent the place from being used as a latrine, and that the water-supply is improved by the occasional digging of a draw-well or the cleansing or repair of existing wells. The cottages are without privies, and men, women and children resort to the open fields or to some tank, channel or river, the water of which is frequently used for bathing, washing clothes and drinking purposes. During the occurrence of large festivals, such as those at Káramadai and Pérúr, special temporary arrangements are made in the way of providing latrines and scavengers and attempting the conservation of drinking water, and at some places a hospital assistant attends to afford medical aid to the sick.

VACCINATION.

Either inoculation or vaccination has been practised in this district ever since its acquisition in 1800. In the oldest reports of Mr. Garrow, the surgeon is spoken of as practising and inculcating 'inoculation,' and Pére DuBois himself helped to spread the practice.[2] In 1805 vaccination was regularly taken up, a superintendent being appointed, allowances granted to district surgeons, and vaccinators employed. A good deal was done in this way, but it was not till some years later that vaccination was systematized,. and parties of vaccinators were sent about the district, vaccinating in villages group by group. This plan had certain advantages in that there was the moral effect of a large party, supervised immediately by a European chief, while fraud on the part of the vaccinators was almost impossible. Revenue officers could also readily give the aid of their presence and persuasive powers. It was, however, abandoned in 1871 for a system, by which isolated vaccinators were appointed to distinct areas, generally corresponding with the divisions of revenue inspec-

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[2] It was at first strongly objected to, and Pére DuBois reported in 1804 that the Hindus would not hear of vaccination on the ground, worthy of a certain class in Christian countries in the matter of epidemics, that small-pox was a manifestation of its special patron deity (Máriamman), and that she would be direly offended if her manifestations were impiously resisted. He considered, however, that the benefits of vaccination would probably induce an opinion that Máriamman herself had deigned to choose this mild form of small-pox, and that it was therefore not impious, but the contrary, to assist in its spread. There has for many years been no difficulty in vaccination in the district save that arising from the apathy of the people and even of officials.

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VACCINATION.

tors, or about three to a taluk; these areas they were supposed to traverse village by village, their work being checked by two native deputy inspectors and by the annual tours of the inspector. This plan had its disadvantages, chiefly in the difficulty of supervision and check, and there was considerable negligence, and several cases of detected frauds. Subsequently each separate division was broken up into a number of petty circles, of which the area was arrived at by experiment; to these were given consecutive numbers, and the vaccinator had to traverse these circles in numerical order, spending a fortnight or three weeks in each; this provided that every village and hamlet should be visited each year and it thus allowed of ready check. The district is now divided into three large vaccine circles, each of which is under the control of a deputy inspector. There are 39 District Board vaccinators and these itinerate in batches, there being one batch to each taluk. There are also four vaccinators employed by the municipalities. The whole of the work is supervised by the Inspector of Vaccination, who is also Deputy Sanitary Commissioner.

Arm-to-arm vaccination is mostly in vogue, but vaccination by animal lymph is gradually being introduced. A depôt for the production of animal lymph was opened at Coimbatore, under the immediate control of the District Medical and Sanitary Officer, on the 15th January 1892, and from this lymph is supplied for use in the Coimbatore municipality, as well as in the vaccination circles. Two additional depôts have since been opened for a more extensive use of animal lymph. The vaccinators itinerate in the villages with inoculated calves, the operations being as much as possible on the 'calf-to-arm' system. No opposition is experienced in carrying out animal vaccination, and people prefer it to human lymph.

The following table shows the progress that vaccination has made in the district during the past few years:—

Year.	Vaccination.		Percentage of successful.
	Total.	Successful.	
1870–80 (annual average) ...	35,912	...	...
1881	45,850	...	...
1882	60,347	...	...
1883	42,300	...	...
1888–89	58,691	57,594	98·13
1889–90	55,132	54,119	98·16
1890–91	52,335	49,570	94·72
1891–92	52,307	45,971	87·89
1892–93	70,328	64,770	92·10
TOTAL ...	288,793	272,024	94·19

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From the above table it will be seen that there was a falling off in the outturn in 1889–90 as compared with the previous year. The decrease, however, is probably merely nominal, as recent revelations have thrown doubt on the accuracy of past returns. The next two years exhibit a further fall in the number of cases, and a lamentable deterioration in quality. These are ascribed chiefly to the sudden introduction and the equally sudden discontinuance of the 'Madras vaccine paste.' Besides this, the people were unwilling to allow themselves to be vaccinated during the prevalence of epidemic cholera or small-pox over a large portion of the year. From 1892–93 commences a new era in the history of vaccination in Coimbatore. The large increase in the number of operations performed during the year was due to the introduction of animal vaccination and the abundant supply of lymph. But the quality of the work was not so good as might be expected; the percentage of success attained was only 92·10 against 94·72 in 1890–91 and 98·16 in the year preceding. It must, however, be remembered that the vaccinators were new to 'animal vaccination.'

In 1892–93 the average cost of each successful case was in the case of Local Fund vaccinators, who do the bulk of the work, 2 annas and 6 pies, the average for the presidency being 3 annas and 5 pies. The average number of persons vaccinated by each vaccinator has risen from 1,429 in 1888–89 to 1,691 in 1892–93. In municipalities this average is lower and the mean cost greater. Detailed statistics are given in the annexed statement.

It is not easy to arrive at any conclusion which can be relied on with confidence regarding the extent of protection afforded by vaccination in the district. As already stated, the mortality returns do not show any decided continuous decline in the number of deaths from small-pox; these returns are undoubtedly defective, but observation also shows that the disease is still very common. The vaccination returns again have frequently been proved to be untrustworthy and they cannot be accepted as a gauge of the amount of work done. On the other side may be set the marked decline in the number of the blind, which, as blindness in all but the old is largely due to small-pox, indicates that the disease is either less common or less virulent, or both.

Statement showing the Particulars of Vaccination in the Coimbatore District during 1888–1893.

Local Fund, Municipal or Dispensary vaccination.	Year.	Total number of persons vaccinated.			Average number of persons vaccinated by each vaccinator.	Primary vaccination.		Re-vaccination.		Percentage of successful cases.		Average cost of each successful case.
		Total.	Males.	Females.		Total.	Successful.	Total.	Successful.	Primary vaccination.	Re-vaccination.	RS. A. P.
Local Fund	1888–89 ...	**55,734**	28,256	27,478	1,429	55,604	54,708	130	123	98·3	94·6	0 2 7
	1889–90 ...	**51,484**	26,165	25,319	1,320	51,375	50,527	109	104	98·3	95·4	0 2 9
	1890–91 ...	**48,941**	24,912	24,029	1,255	47,939	45,632	1,002	756	91·4	75·4	0 3 1
	1891–92 ...	**48,608**	24,562	24,046	1,246	48,001	42,573	607	259	88·7	42·7	0 3 5
	1892–93 ...	**65,948**	33,710	32,238	1,691	64,474	59,886	1,474	1,119	92·9	75·9	0 2 6
	TOTAL ...	**270,715**	**137,605**	**133,110**	**1,388**	**267,393**	**253,326**	**3,322**	**2,361**	**94·7**	**71·1**	**0 2 10**
Coimbatore municipality.	1888–89 ...	**1,126**	625	501	563	1,126	1,097	...	...	97·4	...	0 3 9
	1889–90 ...	**1,557**	803	754	778	1,557	1,494	...	...	95·9	...	0 3 0
	1890–91 ...	**1,587**	841	746	793	1,545	1,493	42	30	96·6	71·4	0 2 5
	1891–92 ..	**1,702**	857	845	851	1,656	1,412	46	30	85·2	65·2	0 3 0
	1892–93 ...	**1,850**	981	869	925	1,771	1,658	79	48	93·6	60·8	0 3 5
	TOTAL ...	**7,822**	**4,107**	**3,715**	**782**	**7,655**	**7,154**	**167**	**108**	**93·5**	**64·7**	**0 3 1**
Erode municipality	1888–89 ...	**665**	354	311	665	665	659	...	...	99·1	...	0 4 4
	1889–90 ...	**677**	410	267	677	677	668	...	...	98·6	...	0 4 3
	1890–91 ...	**517**	284	233	517	511	507	6	6	99·2	100·0	0 6 1
	1891–92 ...	**627**	351	276	627	627	569	...	...	86·0	...	0 5 7
	1892–93 ...	**773**	437	336	773	773	721	...	...	93·3	...	0 4 3
	TOTAL ...	**3,259**	**1,836**	**1,423**	**652**	**3,253**	**3,124**	**6**	**6**	**96·0**	**100·0**	**0 4 10**

Statement showing the Particulars of Vaccination in the Coimbatore District during 1888–1893—cont.

Local Fund, Municipal or Dispensary vaccination.	Year.	Total number of persons vaccinated.			Average number of persons vaccinated by each vaccinator.	Primary vaccination.		Re-vaccination.		Percentage of successful cases.		Average cost of each successful case.
		Total.	Males.	Females.		Total.	Successful.	Total.	Successful.	Primary vaccination.	Re-vaccination.	RS. A. P.
Karúr municipality ...	1888–89 ...	**420**	213	207	420	420	403	...	...	95·9	...	0 4 11
	1889–90 ...	**409**	206	203	409	409	388	...	...	94·9	...	0 5 1
	1890–91 ...	**333**	181	152	333	316	297	17	8	93·9	47·1	0 6 4
	1891–92 ...	**350**	182	168	350	350	308	...	...	88·0	...	0 6 4
	1892–93 ...	**428**	221	207	428	420	363	8	6	86·4	75·0	Not available.
	TOTAL ...	**1,940**	**1,003**	**937**	**388**	**1,915**	**1,759**	**25**	**14**	**91·9**	**56·0**	...
Dispensaries	1888–89 ...	**746**	...	...	...	733	598	13	6	81·5	46·1	...
	1889–90 ...	**1,005**	...	...	...	1,000	933	5	5	93·3	100·0	...
	1890–91 ...	**957**	...	...	...	939	824	18	17	85·7	93·3	...
	1891–92 ...	**1,020**	...	...	...	965	784	55	36	81·2	65·5	...
	1892–93 ...	**1,329**	...	...	...	1,280	940	49	29	73·4	59·2	...
	TOTAL ...	**5,057**	...	...	...	**4,917**	**4,079**	**140**	**98**	**83·0**	**66·4**	...

CHAPTER VI.

EDUCATION.

CHAP. VI. EDUCATION.

Early accounts of education.

NOTHING is known of the Educational Department prior to the British assumption. Public instruction was not recognized as a duty of the State and was therefore left in the hands of the people. State patronage, however, usually extended to the encouragement of classical studies in the Pátasálas which were maintained by small endowments. Owing to the peculiar nature of instruction imparted in these institutions, the diffusion of knowledge among the masses was next to nothing; but they tended a good deal to fill the royal courts with poets, logicians and grammarians, and their abilities were tested on festive occasions and amply rewarded in the order of merit. High offices used to be conferred on those who distinguished themselves in the annual examinations. A report of 1822 shows that endowments for colleges (so-called), to the annual value of Rs. 2,208, had been resumed by the Musalman Government; these were probably devoted to the education of Bráhmans. The same report states that "the schools and colleges appear to be "supported entirely by the people who send their children to them "for instruction. The annual payment for each scholar varies "from Rs. 14 to Rs. 3 according to the circumstances of their "parents. Besides these regular stipends, the masters occasionally "receive presents from the parents of their pupils; they have also "small fees on particular occasions. The earliest age at which "boys attend school is five years; they continue there till they are "13 or 14. Those who study science, law, &c., enter the colleges "at about 15, and continue to frequent them until they have "obtained a competent knowledge of the sciences, or until they "obtain employment. A statement is given of mániams, &c., "granted in former times, but now resumed, to the value of "Rs. 2,208." From the reports of other Collectors it seems that by 'college' was meant a small school, probably in a temple, where the so-called sciences were taught, and by no means a college as now understood. The number of pupils in 173 colleges was only 724, or a little over 4 each, and all of these were Bráhmans. These little schools may still be seen in the mantapams within temples, some venerable Bráhman reciting the sacred books to a little class of Bráhman lads. The number of schools is probably correct judging by the returns in other districts; they were evidently the little village schools still kept up by the chief

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ryots of large villages, and were attended almost solely by Bráhmans' and ryots' children: each school averaged about 10 pupils. Girls were only 82 in number, and were only of the dancing class. The following table gives complete information:—

Number of schools and colleges.	Under instruction.						Population.		
	Bráhmans.	Vaisyas.	Súdras.	Musalmans.	Others.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.
936	1,642	289	6,461	312	226	8,930	316,931	321,268	638,199

Percentage of 'under instruction' to population.	Percentage of males to male population.	Percentage of males to male school-going population at one-eighth of the total.*		
		1822.	1881.	1891.
1·39	2·79	11·2 or 1 in 9	10·5 or 1 in 9½	9·1 or 1 in 11

* The assumption that the males of school-going age number one-eighth of the total population is of course merely a rough estimate. In the first place it is difficult to determine what period should be taken as the school-going age for a country like Coimbatore, but inasmuch as only 5 per cent. of the male pupils are found in other than primary schools, the period between 5 and 13 years of age is probably as fair a one as can be selected. Now, according to the census of 1891, the number of boys over 5 and under 13 was, in round numbers, 200,000, or one-tenth of the total population. In 1881 the proportion was higher than this; what it was in 1822 is not known.—ED.

Assuming that the population of 1822 was given tolerably correctly (though this is doubtful), it will be found that the proportion under instruction was 1 in 71½ as compared with 1 in 71 in 1881 and 1 in 81 in 1891. The figures for 1891 thus show a decided retrogression from those of 1822, so far as the numerical ratio is concerned, but the absolute quantity of education is of course much greater, while the quality is considerably better so far as the scope of a merely literary education extends. But the history of education in Coimbatore is very unsatisfactory, except that private effort has done almost everything, at least up to 1871.

The considerable number of schools shown above could not have sprung up within the first twenty-two years of the British assumption; primary instruction for the masses, and a scientific training, as then understood, for Bráhmans, were not wholly neglected prior to 1799: save, however, the endowed colleges, the schools appear to have been purely private and without Government interference or recognition. It must be remembered that the general instruction given in 1822 was of the poorest descrip-

tion and cultivated the memory at the expense of the reasoning powers; it was merely that of the non-inspected pial schools of the present day.

Early accounts of education.

The subject was then taken up by Government and a Board of Instruction formed. The result of Government effort was the establishment of collectorate and tahsildari (taluk) schools about the year 1826; the masters for the former, of which there were to be two in each district, were selected by the Collector and sent to the presidency for training; those for the latter were chosen from among the people of the town in which the school was to be placed, the selection being left to the chief men of the place. The stipend of collectorate school teachers was Rs. 15 and that of taluk schoolmasters Rs. 9. Voluntary fees and customary presents were alone to be accepted by the teacher, compulsory fees being abolished. The consequences of the mode of selection, the low pay, the absence of stimulus to the teachers, the want of all training, whether in the subjects taught or in the method of teaching, and the entire absence of supervision, resulted in total failure; the general teaching was inferior to that in the ordinary village schools, while the collectorate schoolmaster was hardly superior to a pial teacher. The Coimbatore Collector appears to have thought somewhat better of his three taluk schools, but his figures and facts hardly bear him out, for in 1834 the schools in Coimbatore, Satyamangalam and Karúr only held 99 boys (38, 19, and 42), and but 50 had passed out of the schools, the most proficient of the pupils being only able to read, write and cast accounts in Tamil. About the single collectorate school there are no figures or facts; it seems to have been empty. The result was that in 1835 these schools were summarily abolished.

It is to be noted that Mr. Addis of the newly established London Mission station had started several vernacular schools: from 6 in 1831 they had risen to 14 in 1850, with an attendance of 971 boys. The superior instruction given made them very popular and the pupils were at once taken for village accountants and book-keepers in shops. From 1855 the establishment of Government schools in which English was taught caused the gradual abolition of the Mission school.

Until after the receipt of Sir Charles Wood's despatch of 1854, Government efforts in education were almost *nil*. In 1852 the attention of the Collector (Mr. E. B. Thomas) was drawn to the subject, and his inquiries resulted in the establishment of a private anglo-vernacular school, in July 1852, at Coimbatore, which has gradually developed into an arts college of the second grade, educating up to the F.A. standard. As the founding of this

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school marks an era in Coimbatore education, a view may be taken of the then system and position of education in the district as described by Mr. Thomas in his report of 1853 in answer to the queries of the Education Committee. The following table contains particulars:—

Number of schools.	Number of free schools.	Number of boys' schools charging fees.	Probable amount of fees.	Schools instituted by Missionaries or other bodies.	Schools instituted by natives.	Schools in which English is taught.	Schools solely vernacular.	Pupils.
841	None (?)	830	RS. 40,559	Mission 11 Others 1	829	1	840	10,333

"These are (with the exception of the English one at Coimbatore) common schools scattered over different parts of the district. Tamil and Canarese are taught, not of a sound nature. The schools are supported by the community. Most of the schoolmasters are paid in grain, with a small annual fee in cash on the occasion of the Dasara feast. These schools cannot properly be inserted in report No. 2. The schools are held in the house of some of the influential inhabitants of the village, in a pagoda, common choultry, or some other public place. The boys are taught only to read and write, with a little arithmetic; but they generally leave the school before they attain even this slight knowledge."

It will be observed that 829 out of 841 were common pial schools, that the education given was almost *nil*, and that only one school, viz., Mr. Thomas's school at Coimbatore, taught English. The estimate of fees is a mere guess, but is probably near the mark. The population in 1853 was about 1,160,000; taking male youth of a school-going age only, the proportion of pupils was about 1 in 14, or 7 per cent.; to total population it was 1 in 112, a great retrogression from 1822.

No zilla school was established at Coimbatore under the new system of 1855, Mr. Thomas's anglo-vernacular school at Coimbatore (now known as the Coimbatore College) in a measure supplying its place. In 1858 a normal school at Chéyúr, then a taluk head-quarters, with a taluk school as a practising branch, was established to educate village schoolmasters and also those who would eventually become taluk schoolmasters. In 1859 a taluk school was opened at Polláchi, upon a subscription by the people of Rs. 1,050 for a school-house. In 1860 five new taluk schools were opened at Dhárápuram, Udamalpet, Ánaimalai, Satyamangalam and Erode. In 1861 the normal class at Chéyúr was abolished, the taluk school alone being left; in 1864 the taluk

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school at Ánaimalai was closed for want of support, and in 1876 that at Chéyúr was shut for a similar reason. The Education Act (III of 1865) was extended to 54 places in the district, but no action was taken except in Kángayam and Súlúr. In 1875 the Súlúr school was converted into a private results school, only that at Kángayam being left; since 1871 this school has been under Local Funds and is the only one of the kind in the district. But in 1879 a new normal school was opened at Coimbatore by the Local Fund Board for the sole purpose of training village schoolmasters, and is now flourishing. Another was started at Karúr in 1884, but three years later it was removed to Erode. A female normal school was opened in Coimbatore in January 1885. During the decade commencing with 1880 the taluk middle schools at Udamalpet, Pollâchi, Erode, Karúr and Dhárápuram began one by one to send up students for the Middle School examination. The Satyamangalam taluk school, which had been abolished for want of materials, was replaced after a short interval by the London Mission middle school which rapidly rose to be a high school and then died out. The taluk schools at Udamalpet, Polláchi and Dhárápuram were transferred to the District Board and those at Erode and Karúr to the respective municipal councils. The institutions at Erode, Udamalpet and Dhárápuram were made high schools at different intervals, but they received considerable check by the opening up of a number of adventure schools. The Municipal high school at Erode fell at once; those at Coimbatore and Udamalpet began to crumble. The Native high school and the independent high school at Coimbatore, the Native high school at Erode and the Amarávati high school at Kárattoluvu, which were the newly-started institutions, flourished well for some time, but they in their turn shared the same fate as the schools which they had supplanted. The London Mission high school at Coimbatore and the Board high schools at Udamalpet and Dhárápuram have rallied round and are now good institutions with a decent strength. The Erode Native high school was closed after the 31st March 1893 and has since survived as a lower secondary school under a different private management.

Census statistics.

Of the 1,998,303 persons regarding whom education statistics were obtained at the census of 1891, no less than 1,880,010 individuals were unable to read and write. The following table gives proportional figures for 1881 as well as for 1891 both for Coimbatore and for the presidency exclusive of the Agency Tracts. It will be seen that the educational position of Coimbatore is below the presidency average. The proportion of uninstructed males has fallen since 1881, but in the case of females there has been a slight rise, though even now only 52 females in every 10,000 of that sex

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Census statistics.

can read and write, or are being taught to do so. The proportion of pupils was actually lower than in 1881 in the case of both sexes. Taking only the population of fifteen years of age and upwards, it is found that 85·01 per cent. of the males and 99·56 per cent. of the females are uneducated. Of boys between five and ten only 7·82 per cent. and of those between ten and fifteen 9·82 per cent. are at school :—

Statement showing the proportion of pupils, literates and illiterates in 10,000 of each sex.

—	Males.				Females.			
	Coimbatore.		Presidency.*		Coimbatore.		Presidency.*	
	1891.	1881.	1891.	1881.	1891.	1881.	1891.	1881.
Learning ...	**233**	272	**338**	349	**18**	20	**34**	26
Literate ...	**922**	773	**1,185**	1,027	**34**	60	**69**	62
Illiterate ...	**8,845**	8,955	**8,477**	8,624	**9,948**	9,920	**9,897**	9,912
TOTAL ...	**10,000**	**10,000**	**10,000**	**10,000**	**10,000**	**10,000**	**10,000**	**10,000**

* Exclusive of the Agency Tracts.

Statistics for each taluk.

The subjoined table shows the proportion of pupils, literates and illiterates in each taluk :

Statement showing the proportion of pupils, literates and illiterates in each taluk.

Taluk.	Males.			Females.		
	Learning.	Literate.	Illiterate.	Learning.	Literate.	Illiterate.
Bhaváni	155	649	9,196	5	20	9,975
Coimbatore ...	369	1,313	8,318	45	77	9,878
Dhárápuram ...	207	874	8,919	14	25	9,961
Erode	204	799	8,997	14	28	9,958
Karúr	221	933	8,846	18	36	9,946
Kollégál ...	191	734	9,075	10	17	9,973
Palladam ...	189	739	9,072	9	18	9,973
Polláchi	247	1,069	8,684	16	24	9,960
Satyamangalm ...	157	646	9,197	6	21	9,973
Udamalpet ...	317	1,225	8,458	21	42	9,937
TOTAL ...	**233**	**922**	**8,845**	**18**	**34**	**9,948**

The highest percentage of male illiteracy is found in Bhaváni and Satyamangalam, and Kollégál comes next. These are all backward taluks with a large percentage of forest lands. Education is most advanced in Coimbatore and Udamalpet.

Statistics by religion.

The following statement shows the proportion of pupils, literates and illiterates among the followers of each of the three principal religions :—

Statement showing the number of pupils, literates and illiterates in 10,000 of each sex of each religion.

Statistics by religion.

Religion.	Males.			Females.		
	Learning.	Literate.	Illiterate.	Learning.	Literate.	Illiterate.
Hindus ...	220	870	8,910	13	25	9,962
Musalmans ...	639	2,715	6,646	34	112	9,854
Christians ..	833	2,230	6,937	550	909	8,541
All religions	233	922	8,845	18	34	9,948

The Hindus are the most backward in education, the Musalmans and Christians being markedly superior. Female education is little more than a name except among Christians. It must be remembered that the 'education' denoted by these figures merely means ability to read and write.

Progress of education.

But though the census tables show that education is still backward, yet it appears from the statistics of the educational department that great progress has been made in the last ten years. The number of institutions of all kinds has risen by more than one-half, there are now 12,000 more male pupils than there were a decade ago, and female scholars have nearly trebled in number. The total expenditure on education has risen, in the same period, from Rs. 1,07,371 to Rs. 2,03,746, and the expenditure on primary instruction from Rs. 55,525 to Rs. 1,04,556.

Schools.

On the 31st March 1893 there were 1,084 educational institutions of all kinds; of these 959 were public institutions, while 125 were private. Eight schools are managed by the Educational department, 103 by Local Boards and 12 by municipalities. Of the rest, 478 were aided from public funds, 358 were unaided, but conformed to the rules of the department, and 125 were private and indigenous schools. Classified according to the standard of instruction afforded, there were 2 arts colleges, 7 upper secondary schools for boys and 2 for girls, 11 lower secondary schools for boys and 10 for girls, 202 upper primary schools for boys and 8 for girls, 696 lower primary schools for boys and 18 for girls, 1 training school for masters and 1 for mistresses, and 1 industrial school. The 125 private institutions comprised 115 elementary vernacular schools, 7 Qurán schools, 2 Arabic and 1 Sanskrit school. The above numbers include 18 special schools for Paraiyas and the kindred classes, of which 1 is managed by the Local Board, 9 are aided from public funds, 6 unaided and 2 private.

Pupils.

The number of pupils on the rolls on the 31st March 1893 was 30,986, of whom 27,512 were boys and 3,474 girls. The elementary nature of the education afforded will be seen from the

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low proportion of students in the collegiate, high school and middle school departments. In the case of girls there are only 123 reading in schools above the primary standard, and 83 of these are found in the vernacular middle schools and 34 in English middle schools.

Number of pupils in 100 reading in	Boys.	Girls.
Arts colleges	0·27	...
High schools	1·56	0·17
Middle schools	3·59	3·37
Primary schools	87·04	92·66
Indigenous schools	6·53	1·44
Qurán schools	0·54	1·67
Other schools	0·47	0·69
TOTAL ...	100·00	100·00

The marginal statement shows the distribution of the pupils according to the race or caste to which they belong. Nearly 70 per cent. of the students in colleges and high schools and about half of those in middle schools are Bráhmans, and 40 out of the 49 masters in training schools are of this caste. All the 6 girls in high schools are Europeans or Eurasians and 33 out of the 34 girls in English middle schools belong to those classes. Of the 83 girls studying in vernacular middle schools, 51 are Native Christians, and 11 out of the 24 mistresses in the training schools belong to the same section of the people. The state of Musalman education is very backward, for only 67 out of the 2,135 pupils of this religion have passed the primary standard.

Race or Caste.	Males.	Females.
Europeans and Eurasians ...	113	156
Native Christians	709	378
Muhammadans	1,915	220
Bráhmans	3,109	734
Other caste Hindus	20,864	1,910
Paraiyas, &c.	780	75
Others	22	1
TOTAL ...	27,512	3,474

The classification of pupils according to the occupations of their parents or guardians is shown in the margin. Persons in Government service constitute only 1·73 per cent. of the total population, so that the proportion of pupils of this class is relatively very high. Landholders form 44·23 per cent., coolies 22·90 per cent., traders 7·48 per cent., artisans 15·45 per cent., and mendicants 0·74 per cent. The proportion of boys and girls under instruction is relatively high among landholders and traders, while among artisans it is very low.

Class.	Pupils.	
	Number.	Percentage.
Officials	1,223	3·95
Petty officials ...	2,219	7·16
Traders	5,681	18·33
Landholders ...	15,130	48·83
Artisans	2,350	7·58
Coolies	3,744	12·08
Mendicants ...	262	0·85
Others	377	1·22
TOTAL ...	30,986	100·00

The number of pupils learning English is 4,594 boys and 235 girls. There has been a great relative advance in the last three years, but the number possessing a real knowledge of this language is still very small. The number of girls studying Arabic is 71, and it may be assumed that these are all Musalmans; there are on the whole 220 girls of this religion at school, and if the above assumption is correct, only 149 can study some other language exclusively. According to the returns, however, 172 are learning Hindustani, and it is, therefore, clear that some at least of these pupils are not Musalmans, or are learning Hindustani in addition to Arabic.

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Pupils.

Financial.

The total expenditure on education in the district in 1892–93 was Rs. 2,03,746, and more than two-fifths of this was received in the shape of fees. The sources of contribution are shown in the margin. Rather more than one-third was paid from public funds. Again, of the total amount spent on education, 51·32 per cent. was devoted to primary schools. The average cost per pupil was Rs. 6–9–2, and Rs. 2–5–11 of this was paid from public funds, Rs. 2–11–8 by parents in the shape of fees, and the rest from subscriptions, endowments, &c. The average cost, to parents, of educating a boy or girl thus amounts to about four annas a month.

Source.	Amount.	Percentage.
	RS.	
Provincial funds ...	37,016	18·17
Local funds	27,657	13·57
Municipal funds	8,689	4·27
Fees	84,569	41·50
Subscriptions	15,910	7·81
Endowments, &c. ...	29,905	14·68
TOTAL ...	2,03,746	100·00

Arts colleges.

There are two arts colleges in the district, viz., the Coimbatore College and St. Michael's College, Coimbatore. The former institution was established in 1852 by Mr. E. B. Thomas, the then Collector of the district, with the aid of various European and native gentlemen. The school was at first named after its founder, but its designation was subsequently changed into that of the 'Coimbatore Anglo-Vernacular school.' It has been, from the beginning, managed by a committee of residents. Its standard at first was between that of a taluk and a zilla school, and in 1860–61 it proposed to educate up to the Matriculation examination. In 1864–65 it was called a middle school, and in 1867–68 it rose from a middle to a high school, and for the first time passed lads at the Matriculation examination. Next year it developed into a college of the second grade and passed two pupils in the First Arts and ten in the Matriculation examinations. The college department was, however, closed in 1871, from which time it was a high school of moderate success in the Matriculation

CHAP. VI. EDUCATION. Arts colleges.

examination until 1875–76, when F.A. classes were again established, the school thus becoming again a college of the second grade, in which it still continues. In 1874 its numbers were so large that the junior classes were removed to form a branch school; the figures given embrace both. The school opened in 1852 with the moderate attendance of 79 boys, from which number it has, with trifling fluctuations, steadily advanced to an attendance on 31st March 1893 of 383, of whom 55 were in the F.A. classes. The institution is dependent entirely upon the Government and municipal monthly grant of Rs. 460 and the fees which on an average amount to about Rs. 1,000. The college is open to all classes of the community, but the majority of the students are Bráhmans.

St. Michael's College is the result of the gradual growth of a small Anglo-Vernacular school established by the Fathers of the Foreign Mission Society, Paris, in 1860, for the education of the children of the Catholic residents of Coimbatore. It began to prepare students for the Matriculation examination in 1887. The success of the institution and a desire to place the benefits of a liberal education within the reach of the Catholic community led the Roman Catholic Mission of Coimbatore to apply in 1891 for its affiliation to the University of Madras. Though intended chiefly for Catholics, children of other religious persuasions are also admitted on the principle of non-interference. The total strength of the institution is about 330, of whom 80 are Native Christian boarders. The institution is supported by the Roman Catholic Mission of Coimbatore assisted by a grant-in-aid from Government.

Industrial schools.

There is only one industrial school in the district, which is known as the 'Karúr Children's Home.' On the 31st March 1893 there were 79 students at this institution; of these 39 were learning drawing, 36 carpentry, 10 blacksmith's work, 6 silversmith's work, 25 weaving and 2 lace-making. The school manufactures brought in Rs. 10,842 in 1892–93.

Statistics.

I.—Statement showing the number of Institutions and Pupils on the 31st March of each year.

Year.	Number of institutions of all kinds.	Pupils.		
		Total.	Males.	Females.
1883–84	678	**16,794**	15,549	1,245
1884–85	711	**17,165**	15,721	1,444
1885–86	709	**18,281**	16,511	1,770
1886–87	771	**20,532**	18,508	2,024
1887–88	779	**21,279**	19,384	1,895
1888–89	866	**23,416**	21,239	2,177
1889–90	892	**24,154**	21,744	2,410
1890–91	993	**26,946**	24,018	2,928
1891–92	976	**27,009**	23,792	3,217
1892–93	1,084	**30,986**	27,512	3,474

II.—Statement showing the number of Schools and Scholars according to the different stages of Instruction.

Classes of institutions.	1891–92.		1892–93.	
	Number of institutions.	Number of pupils on 31st March.	Number of institutions.	Number of pupils on 31st March.
Public Institutions.				
University education—				
Arts colleges	2	72	2	74
Professional colleges	...	...	...	...
School education, general—				
Secondary schools for boys—				
Upper secondary, English	7	389	7	427
Lower secondary { English ...	12	979	11	987
Lower secondary { Vernacular ...	...	...	...	...
Secondary schools for girls—				
Upper secondary, English	2	11	2	9
Lower secondary, English ...	1	50	1	35
Upper secondary, Vernacular ...	...	...	...	...
Lower secondary, Vernacular ...	7	49	9	83
Primary schools—				
For boys { Upper primary ...	175	1,428	202	1,678
For boys { Lower primary ...	651	20,812	696	23,766
For girls { Upper primary ...	10	102	8	104
For girls { Lower primary ...	22	1,646	18	1,618
School education, special—				
Training schools for masters ...	1	69	1	49
Training schools for mistresses ...	1	20	1	24
Other special schools	1	64	1	79
TOTAL, PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS ...	**892**	**25,691**	**959**	**28,933**
Private Institutions.				
Advanced schools teaching—				
Arabic or Persian	3	75	2	45
Sanskrit	...	...	1	22
Elementary schools teaching a vernacular only or mainly	81	1,243	115	1,779
Elementary schools teaching the Qurán.	...	...	7	207
Other schools not conforming to departmental standards	...	...	...	...
TOTAL, PRIVATE INSTITUTIONS ...	**84**	**1,318**	**125**	**2,053**
Grand Total ...	**976**	**27,009**	**1,084**	**30,986**

III.—Statement showing the Institutions according to Managing Agencies.

Institutions.	31st March 1892.		31st March 1893.	
	Schools.	Scholars.	Schools.	Scholars.
Managed by the Department ...	8	789	8	730
Managed by Local Boards	95	4,282	103	4,818
Managed by Municipal Boards ...	12	849	12	906
Aided from public funds	443	13,065	478	14,620
Unaided	334	6,706	358	7,859
Private and indigenous	84	1,318	125	2,053
TOTAL ...	**976**	**27,009**	**1,084**	**30,986**

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IV.—Statement showing for 1892–93 the distribution of Direct Expenditure on Public Instruction.

Classes of institutions.	From Provincial funds.	From Local funds.	From Municipal funds.	From fees.	From subscriptions, endowments and other sources.	Total.
	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.
Government.						
Colleges, general	...	...	...	...	...	...
Colleges, special	...	...	...	...	...	...
Secondary schools for boys ...	54	...	...	22	...	76
Secondary schools for girls ...	632	...	...	29	...	661
Primary schools for boys ...	663	...	...	...	...	663
Primary schools for girls ...	3,059	...	...	108	...	3,167
Training schools ...	9,399	...	...	...	...	9,399
Other special schools ...	...	...	...	...	...	...
TOTAL ...	13,807	...	...	159	...	13,966
Board.						
Colleges, general	...	...	...	...	...	...
Colleges, special	...	...	...	...	...	...
Secondary schools for boys ...	2,883	−52	1,148	6,185	3	10,167
Secondary schools for girls ...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Primary schools for boys ...	2,296	13,386	3,655	7,487	11	26,835
Primary schools for girls ...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Training schools	137	786	63	...	...	986
Other special schools ...	...	...	...	...	...	...
TOTAL ...	5,316	14,120	4,866	13,672	14	37,988
Aided.						
Colleges, general	2,892	...	...	3,157	3,932	9,981
Colleges, special	...	...	...	...	...	...
Secondary schools for boys ...	2,938	...	1,092	10,473	3,948	18,451
Secondary schools for girls ...	2,609	...	...	1,375	2,584	6,568
Primary schools for boys ...	2,594	13,528	2,728	29,914	10,335	59,099
Primary schools for girls ...	3,895	19	3	1,130	5,161	10,208
Training schools	...	...	...	...	...	...
Other special schools	2,431	...	...	40	15,182	17,653
TOTAL ...	17,359	13,547	3,823	46,089	41,142	121960
Unaided.						
Colleges, general	...	...	...	...	...	...
Colleges, special	...	...	...	...	...	...
Secondary schools for boys ...	...	...	...	7,442	1,879	9,321
Secondary schools for girls ...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Primary schools for boys ...	...	...	...	12,761	1,893	14,654
Primary schools for girls ...	...	...	...	98	...	98
Training schools	...	...	...	...	...	...
Other special schools	...	...	...	...	...	...
TOTAL ...	...	...	...	20,301	3,772	24,073

NOTE.—The above excludes expenditure on private schools (Rs. 5,225) and grants for furniture and other special objects (Rs. 534).

V.—Statement showing the Total Expenditure from each source in each of the last ten years.

CHAP. VI.
EDUCATION.

Statistics.

Years.	From Provincial funds.	From Local funds.	From Municipal funds.	From fees.	From subscriptions.	From endowments and other sources.	Total.
	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.
1883-84 ...	12,068	14,663	5,115	60,076	2,913	12,536	**1,07,371**
1884-85 ...	15,036	20,004	6,745	67,833	418	12,669	**1,22,705**
1885-86 ...	20,230	17,729	8,003	68,562	3,680	15,733	**1,33,937**
1886-87 ...	18,846	14,341	7,164	72,622	2,696	21,059	**1,36,728**
1887-88 ...	17,376	17,280	6,245	71,204	5,029	32,458	**1,49,592**
1888-89 ...	16,767	19,196	6,574	71,772	2,412	25,372	**1,42,093**
1889-90 ...	19,354	21,914	7,580	74,874	6,776	29,466	**1,59,964**
1890-91 ...	26,416	25,720	7,699	89,038	9,453	22,966	**1,81,292**
1891-92 ...	32,713	29,356	7,085	76,706	8,187	30,819	**1,84,866**
1892-93 ...	37,016	27,657	8,689	84,569	15,910	29,905	**2,03,746**

VI.—Statement showing the Total Expenditure on Primary Education in each of the last ten years.

Years.	From Provincial funds.	From Local funds.	From Municipal funds.	From fees.	From subscriptions.	From endowments and other sources.	Total.
	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.
1883-84 ...	2,093	10,500	4,018	28,968	354	9,592	**55,525**
1884-85 ...	4,011	15,162	4,862	31,585	50	9,251	**64,921**
1885-86 ...	6,097	12,116	4,746	30,544	747	8,685	**62,935**
1886-87 ...	4,458	10,994	3,491	34,291	585	9,891	**63,710**
1887-88 ...	2,817	12,939	4,027	37,336	560	10,838	**68,517**
1888-89 ...	2,705	14,573	4,413	41,022	937	12,295	**75,945**
1889-90 ...	4,400	17,311	5,282	42,020	790	13,018	**82,821**
1890-91 ...	7,008	19,821	4,930	44,664	1,373	12,905	**90,701**
1891-92 ...	8,527	24,244	5,113	44,290	1,444	11,426	**95,044**
1892-93 ...	6,967	26,320	5,640	52,513	288	12,828	**1,04,556**

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Statistics.

VII.—Statement showing for 1892–93 *the Statistics for Special Schools for Paraiyas and the like Classes.*

Classes of institutions.	Number of schools.	Number on rolls on 31st March.			Classification according to race or creed.								Number of scholars learning			
		Total.	Boys.	Girls.	Europeans and Eurasians.	Native Christians.	Muhammadans.	Bráhmans.	Non-Bráhman Caste Hindus.	Panchamas or Paraiyas and kindred classes.	Aborigines.	Others.	English.	Tamil.	Malayálam.	Kanarese.
Government.	..	...	...	...	...	..	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Board ...	1	28	28	...	...	...	...	...	...	28	...	...	...	...	...	28
Aided ...	9	217	211	6	...	22	1	...	27	167	...	...	9	217	.	...
Unaided ...	6	172	157	15	...	49	...	...	12	111	.	..	20	172		..
Private ...	2	21	21	...	...	...	...	...	...	21	...	...	...	21	...	...
TOTAL ...	18	438	417	21	...	71	1	...	39	327	...	...	29	410	..	28

CHAPTER VII.

COMMUNICATIONS.

CHAP. VII. ROADS.

Progress in road-making

THE district is provided with a large number of good roads. Communications were, however, not always so numerous or so well maintained as they now are. In 1800 Captain Macleod the Collector, reported that "in the districts south of the Toppúr and north of the Cauvery there were no good roads," and requested the Board of Revenue to obtain a detachment of the Pioneer corps to be employed in making certain roads suggested by him. At that time there were hardly any roads, but only tracks, and consequently carts were entirely unknown, the whole traffic having been conducted on pack-bullocks and ponies, and occasionally by basket boats on the rivers. From that time onward the district has been gradually supplied with good roads, which afford the ryot an easy means of exchanging his produce at the various markets.

Until 1879–80 the Imperial Public Works Department had charge of the roads, and charged 25 per cent. on the outlay for supervision, so that in 1873–74 when over two lakhs were spent on roads, the entire cost of supervision was Rs. 50,117. Since 1879-80 this plan has been discontinued and a special local fund engineering establishment has been entertained, which appears to be an economy. The sole duty of the present staff is that of constructing and repairing all local fund buildings and roads.

In 1858 was first collected a road-cess of 2 per cent. upon the assessment of land in ryotwári taluks, which was expended in making the tracks then in existence into good fair-weather roads, and, finally, passable in wet weather without much trouble. This cess was raised from 6 pies to 9 pies and finally to one anna in the rupee on all occupied lands, whether ryotwári, zemindári or inám. It is levied under the Local Boards Act, and all roads are now under the control of the District or Taluk Boards.

Present roads.

The total length of roads in the district on the 31st March 1894 was 2,006 miles, of which 937 miles were metalled.

The principal roads are the Madras trunk road and those leading to Trichinopoly, Madura and the Hássanúr pass, aggregating a total length of 266 miles. The roads are generally good, though heavy rain tries all but the best metalled ones; the

CHAP. VII. ROADS.

hardness of the soil and the scanty rainfall permit of easy draught almost throughout the year. Details of the roads in each taluk will be found in Chapter XIX.

Avenues.

Avenues are now mostly looked after by the road establishment, but till 1882 they were in charge of the revenue officers. They are generally in very poor condition; the old trees were only ic'chi (*Ficus Virens*), and these are dying off. Now that avenues must be made with expensive hired labour, it is very costly to rear them in hard soil with the scanty rainfall of the district. On roads traversing wet lands cocoanut avenues are being successfully formed; these will pay well.

In 1881 the Collector (Mr. Wilson) proposed to the Local Fund Board to get the various ryots whose lands border the roads to plant avenue trees on condition of enjoying the usufruct of the trees; the plan was however not tried. Probably a bonus of 4 or 8 annas per fruit tree fairly established, would stimulate this useful operation; this plan is found to be successful in America.

There are now 1,310 miles of road with avenues, and the cost of maintaining the trees is more than covered by the sale-proceeds of their produce.

RAILWAYS.

Two lines of railway run through Coimbatore and a third is under construction. The total mileage of railways in the district, excluding incomplete lines and lines under construction, is 146 miles, of which 101 belong to the Madras Railway and 45 to the South Indian.

The Madras Railway.

The Madras Railway, which is on the standard gauge, enters the district about 2 miles east of Erode, crossing the Cauvery river by means of a fine girder bridge. From Erode the main south-west line runs through Tottiyapálaiyam, Perundurai, Vijayamangalam, Úttukkuli, Kúlipálaiyam, Tiruppúr, Mangalam, Sómanúr, Súlúr, Singánallúr, Pódanúr junction and Madukkarai. The Nílgiri branch of this line takes off from Pódanúr and runs in an almost northerly direction, with stations at Coimbatore, Tudiyalúr, Periyanáyakkanpálaiyam, Káramadai and Méttuppálaiyam. The line from Erode to Pódanúr was opened on the 12th May 1862, but the branch to Coimbatore and Méttuppálaiyam was not made until nearly eleven years later.

A serious accident occurred on the Nílgiri branch of the Madras Railway on the 9th November 1893, by which over 40 persons lost their lives, while many others were injured, some of them very seriously. The accident occurred between the Káramadai and Periyanáyakkanpálaiyam stations, and it was caused by the very rapid and unprecedented rising of the Periyapallam stream, which washed the ballast out from beneath the metals.

The South Indian Railway.

The South Indian Railway, a metre gauge line, has a length of over 40 miles in the district. It enters near Puliyúr, and runs north-west, through the taluks of Karúr and Erode. The stations on this line are Puliyúr, Karúr, Púgalúr, Kodumudi, Únjalúr, Pásúr and Erode.

The Nílgiri Railway.

From Méttuppálaiyam a metre gauge line is being constructed to Coonoor, the total length being 16½ miles. The Bhaváni has been bridged and the permanent way has been laid as far as Kallár; a good deal of the earthwork and some of the masonry on the ghát have also been completed, and it is hoped that the line will be opened by the end of 1897 or the beginning of 1898. It is intended to continue it to Ootacamund eventually.

Projected railways.

In addition to the above, various other lines have been projected. Among these may be mentioned a line from Pálghat to Dindigul, passing through Pollächi and Udamalpet; an alternative line from Pódanúr to Dindigul; and a line from Erode to Nanjangód *viá* Satyamangalam, with continuation to Mangalore and a branch from Satyamangalam to Méttuppálaiyam.

POST OFFICES.

The post office in Hyder's time was, in addition to its legitimate duties, an agent of espionage, by which, as Wilks states, Hyder was able to learn the secrets even of private families, and no one was safe who was, or was suspected of being, wealthy. Subsequent to the British assumption it lost this peculiar importance, and became a mere agency for the receipt and transmission of letters by runners along a few chief lines; the Collector managed all local lines, which were called the District Post. At present there are six District Post lines, viz., (1) Satyamangalam-Tálavádi, (2) Bhaváni-Kávéripuram, (3) Méttuppálaiyam-Annúr, (4) Satyamangalam-Puliyampatti, (5) Sómanúr-Karumuttampatti and (6) Bhaváni-Andiyúr. Under modern auspices, though no longer a police bureau, it is following on the track of its English exemplar, and has started money order offices, and, on 1st April 1882, savings banks, but is not yet an insurance, annuity, or stock-selling office. The head-quarters of the local superintendent are at Coonoor. The establishment consists of a head office at Coimbatore with a postmaster and seven clerks, 13 sub-offices under sub-postmasters subordinate to the head office, and 57 branch offices under village postmasters.

There are 15 Imperial post lines served by post runners whose stages are 5 or 6 miles, with an aggregate length of 228 miles, and a District post line of 112 miles; these connect important centres with one another or with the railways. It is to be noted that the district is served by two lines of rail with their travelling post offices.

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Post Offices.

Statistics showing the extent of the transactions of the post-offices are not available, with the exception of those relating to the Savings-Bank department, which are given below:—

—	1882–83.		1891–92.		1892–93.		1893–94.	
	Number.	Amount.	Number.	Amount.	Number.	Amount.	Number.	Amount.
		RS.		RS.		RS.		RS.
Deposits ...	849	9,244	5,413	1,27,950	5,883	1,30,926	5,192	1,03,306
Withdrawals ...	130	3,957	3,749	1,18,346	3,982	1,30,262	3,947	1,19,743
Number of accounts open at end of year.	NO. 188		NO. 2,791		NO. 3,124		NO. 3,404	
Amount at credit of depositors at end of year.	RS. 5.287		RS. 1,39,594		RS. 1,40,258		RS. 1,24,021	

The number of accounts advanced from 188 in 1882–83 to 3,404 in 1892–93, and the amount at credit of depositors in the latter year was more than twenty times the balance of 1882–83.

TELEGRAPHS.

There are eight Telegraph offices in the district apart from the offices at all railway stations. These eight are combined Post and Telegraph offices. One of the Telegraph department's lines runs through the district, viz., the Jálarpet-Calicut line. In addition there are the wires on all the lines of railway.

TRAVELLERS' BUNGALOWS.

There are 73 bungalows for the accommodation of travellers. Of these 50 are maintained by the Local Boards and these are open to all travellers alike, public officers having no preference over non-officials. At the Coimbatore bungalow meals will be supplied if required, and in the case of the bungalow at Erode food is procurable at the railway station, which is close by; at the others the traveller must make his own arrangements. Some of the bungalows have a little furniture, as noted in the list that follows, but this is not as a rule sufficient for comfort and travellers would do well not to rely on it. No person is permitted to occupy a bungalow for more than 24 hours if it is required by another traveller. The bungalows maintained by the Forest department, which are nine in number, are primarily intended for officers of that department; but they are, when not required by them, available free of charge for temporary accommodation (*i.e.*, not exceeding ten days) by officers of other departments of grades not inferior to that of Sub-Assistant Conservator. Such officers, however, when wishing to occupy forest rest-houses, should obtain

CHAP. VII. TRAVELLERS' BUNGALOWS.

permission from the Collector before making use of them. Private persons may also be permitted by the Collector to use the Forest bungalows, but they must vacate if the accommodation occupied by them is required by an officer on duty. There are 13 Public Works bungalows, and these, when not in use by members of the Public Works department, are available free of charge for the temporary accommodation of officers of other departments corresponding to the engineering and subordinate establishments of the Public Works department. Permission to occupy the bungalows should, as a rule, be previously obtained from the Executive Engineer. Private individuals can, with the permission of the Superintending Engineer, occupy these bungalows subject to a charge of 8 annas per diem or each portion of 24 hours. At Coimbatore there is a bungalow maintained from municipal funds. This has very good accommodation and is well furnished.

CHATRAMS.

There are 120 chatrams for the accommodation of native travellers. Nearly 100 of these are mere rest-houses situated at some convenient spot near a river or tank, which affords facilities for the preparation of meals ; at the others meals are provided free of charge. The lists appended to this chapter give full particulars of the situation of the various bungalows and chatrams and of the nature of the accommodation available.

List of Travellers' Bungalows in the District of Coimbatore.

Taluk.	Station.	Nature of accommodation.	Charge per diem.	By whom maintained.
Bhaváni ...	Andiyúr	An ordinary room (part of choultry); not furnished; food not obtainable.	8 annas for a single person and 12 annas for a married couple.	Taluk Board, Erode.
	Attáni	One ordinary room (part of choultry); not furnished; food cannot be obtained.	Do. do. ...	Taluk Board, Erode.
	Bhaváni	Two bed-rooms and one sitting room; furnished with a table, two chairs and one rattan cot; stabling for four horses; food cannot be obtained.	Do. do. ...	Taluk Board, Erode.
		One hall and two bath-rooms; furnished with tables and chairs; food cannot be obtained; there are extensive bazaars in the town where articles of food are available.	Free for 10 days, if not required by P.W.D.; 8 annas for subsequent days.	Public Works department.
	Kavundappádi ...	One bed-room (part of choultry); not furnished; food cannot be obtained.	8 annas for a single person and 12 annas for a married couple.	Taluk Board, Erode.
	Nerinjippéttai ...	One ordinary room (part of choultry); not furnished; food cannot be obtained.	Do. do. ...	Taluk Board, Erode.
Coimbatore ...	Ammápálaiyam ...	One bed-room (part of choultry); no furniture; food cannot be obtained.	None	Taluk Board, Coimbatore.
	Annúr	One sitting room, one bed-room, one kitchen and a latrine; partially furnished.	8 annas for a single person and 12 annas for a married couple.	Taluk Board, Coimbatore.
	Chinnaiyampálaiyam.	One bed-room (part of choultry); no furniture; food cannot be obtained.	None	Taluk Board, Coimbatore.
	Chitrac'chávadi channel head near Bolampatti.	Only one room; unfurnished; usual supplies available in the adjacent village.	Do.	Public Works department.
	Coimbatore	The first class consists of a hall, two bed-rooms and three bath-rooms.	Each adult 1 rupee and each married couple Rs. 1-8-0.	Coimbatore Municipal Council.

List of Travellers' Bungalows in the District of Coimbatore—cont.

Taluk.	Station.	Nature of accommodation.	Charge per diem.	By whom maintained.
Coimbatore—*cont.*	Coimbatore—*cont.*	The second class consists of one room, one bath-room and out-houses.	Adult 8 annas, married couple 12 annas.	Coimbatore Municipal Council.
		A soldiers' shed	Adult 2 annas, married couple 3 annas.	
		The bungalow is furnished and has stabling for five horses. Travellers can make their own arrangements with the bungalow butler for food.	......	
	Iruttuppallam ...	Three rooms and two bath-rooms, with verandahs on three sides; tiled; stabling for three horses. The bungalow is neither furnished nor can food be obtained in it.	......	Forest department.
	Sirumugai	A bed-room; furnished with an iron cot, four chairs, two tables, one wooden tub, one water-stand and a dish; food cannot be obtained.	8 annas for a single person and 12 annas for a married couple.	Taluk Board, Coimbatore.
Dhárápuram.	Dhárápuram ...	One bed-room and one sitting room; stabling for two horses; furnished with two tables, four chairs, two iron cots, one wooden tub, one brass basin and one lantern; food cannot be obtained.	Do. do. ...	Taluk Board, Erode.
		Two rooms, unfurnished; usual supplies available in the adjacent village. The bungalow is at present occupied by the civil apothecary of the station.	None	Public Works department.
	Kángayam	Two bed-rooms and one sitting room; stabling for two horses; furnished with three tables, three chairs and five cots; food cannot be obtained.	8 annas for a single person and 12 annas for a married couple.	Taluk Board, Erode.
	Kundadam	One bed-room (part of choultry); furnished with a table and two chairs; food cannot be obtained.	Do. do. ...	

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List of Travellers' Bungalows in the District of Coimbatore—cont.

Taluk.	Station.	Nature of accommodation.	Charge per diem.	By whom maintained.
Dhárápuram—*cont.*	Mélanúr	One bed-room (part of choultry); furnished with a table and two chairs; food cannot be obtained.	8 annas for a single person and 12 annas for a married couple.	Taluk Board, Erode.
	Muttúr	A bed-room (part of choultry); no furniture; food cannot be obtained.	Do. do. ...	
	Údiyúr	One bed-room (part of choultry); no furniture; food cannot be obtained.	Do. do. ...	
Erode ...	Erode	Two halls, two bed-rooms, two bath-rooms; furnished with tables and chairs; food procurable at railway station close by.	Free for 10 days, if not required by P.W.D.; 8 annas for subsequent days.	Public Works department.
	Kásipálaiyam ...	Two halls and two bath-rooms; furnished with tables and chairs; small bazaars at Kodumudi, 4 miles distant.	Do. do. ...	
	Malayampálaiyam ...	One bath-room, one kitchen and a bed-room (part of choultry); not furnished; food cannot be obtained.	8 annas for a single person and 12 annas for a married couple.	Taluk Board, Erode.
	Perundurai	Two bed-rooms, a hall, two bath-rooms, and a kitchen; furnished with two tables, four chairs, two stools, two iron cots and a wooden cot; food cannot be obtained.	Do. do. ...	
	Sengappalli	A hall, two bed-rooms, a bath-room; stabling for two horses; furnished with a table and a chair; food cannot be obtained.	Free for 10 days, if not required by P.W.D.; 8 annas for subsequent days.	Public Works department.
	Sittódu	A hall and two bath-rooms; not furnished; food cannot be obtained.	8 annas for a single person and 12 annas for a married couple.	Taluk Board, Erode.
	Vijayamangalam ...	A hall and two bath-rooms (part of choultry); not furnished; food cannot be obtained.	Do. do. ...	

List of Travellers' Bungalows in the District of Coimbatore—cont.

Taluk.	Station.	Nature of accommodation.	Charge per diem.	By whom maintained.
Karúr ...	Anaippálaiyam ...	A hall and two bath-rooms; not furnished; food not obtainable; small bazaars at Pallapálaiyam, 4 miles distant.	Free for 10 days, if not required by P.W.D.; 8 annas for subsequent days.	Public Works department.
	Sinna Dhárápuram ...	A bed-room and a sitting room (part of choultry); furnished with a table and two chairs; food cannot be obtained.	8 annas for a single person and 12 annas for a married couple.	Taluk Board, Erode.
	Karúr	A hall and * two bed-rooms; furnished with a table and chairs; food cannot be obtained. There are extensive bazaars where articles of food are available.	Free for 10 days, if not required by P.W.D.; 8 annas for subsequent days.	Public Works department.
	Nágampalli	A bed-room (part of choultry); no furniture; food cannot be obtained.	None	Taluk Board, Erode.
	Nóyil	A hall and two bath-rooms; furnished with a table and chairs; food cannot be obtained. Small bazaars at Kodumudi, 4 miles distant.	Free for 10 days, if not required by P.W.D.; 8 annas for subsequent days.	Public Works department.
	Punnam	A bed-room (part of choultry); no furniture; food cannot be obtained.	None	Taluk Board, Erode.
	Tennilai	A bed-room (part of choultry); furnished with two tables and two chairs; food cannot be obtained.	8 annas for a single person and 12 annas for a married couple.	Taluk Board, Erode.
Kollégál ...	Bailúr ...	One bed-room and two ordinary rooms (part of a choultry); no furniture; food cannot be obtained.	Do. do. ...	Taluk Board, Kollégál.
		One room and a bath-room; no furniture; food cannot be obtained.	......	Forest department.
	Kollégál	Two bed-rooms; stabling for three horses; furnished with three tables, six chairs, four stools and a cot; food cannot be obtained.	8 annas for a single person and 12 annas for a married couple.	Taluk Board, Kollégál.
	Rámápuram	Two bed-rooms, one sitting room, two bath-rooms, godowns and stabling for two horses.	Do. do. ...	Taluk Board, Kollégál.

* One room is now used as overseer's store-room.

List of Travellers' Bungalows in the District of Coimbatore—cont.

Taluk.	Station.	Nature of accommodation.	Charge per diem.	By whom maintained.
Kollégál—*cont.*	Lọkkanahalli ...	One bed-room and two ordinary rooms (part of a choultry); no furniture; food cannot be obtained.	8 annas for a single person and 12 annas for a married couple.	Taluk Board, Kollégál.
		One room and a bath-room; stabling for two horses; no furniture; food cannot be obtained.	......	Forest department.
Palladam ...	Avanási	Two bed-rooms; stabling for two horses; furnished with two tables, chairs and four cots (unserviceable); food cannot be obtained.	8 annas for a single person and 12 annas for a married couple.	Taluk Board, Polláchi.
	Avanásipálaiyam ...	A bed-room (part of choultry); food not obtainable.	Do. do. ...	
	Kálippálaiyam ...	One bed-room (part of choultry); no furniture; food cannot be obtained.	None	
	Karumuttampatti ...	Do. do. do. ...	Do.	
	Mandripálaiyam ...	Do. do. do. ..	Do.	
	Palladam	Two bed-rooms; stabling for two horses; furnished with two tables, six chairs, two iron cots, two water-tubs, three benches, a punkah and a table (in kitchen) and two basins with stand; food cannot be obtained.	8 annas for a single person and 12 annas for a married couple.	
	Tiruppúr	Two bed-rooms (part of choultry); stabling for a single horse; furnished with two wooden cots, two tables and a stool; food cannot be obtained.	Do. do. ...	
Polláchi ...	Ánaimalai	Two rooms, one bath-room and a separate room; together with a thatched court-yard used as a rest-house occasionally. The compound is used as a timber depôt. The bungalow is neither furnished nor can food be obtained in it.	......	Forest department.

List of Travellers' Bungalows in the District of Coimbatore—cont.

Taluk.	Station.	Nature of accommodation.	Charge per diem.	By whom maintained.
Polláchi—*cont.*	Gómangalam ...	One bed-room (part of choultry); no furniture; food not obtainable.	8 annas for a single person and 12 annas for a married couple.	Taluk Board, Polláchi.
	Kinattukkadavu ...	One bed-room (part of choultry); furnished with a table and two chairs; food cannot be obtained.	Do. do. ...	Taluk Board, Polláchi.
	Kóttúr near Malaiyándipattanam.	Only one room; unfurnished; usual supplies available in the adjacent village.	None	Public Works department.
	Márchináyakkanpálaiyam.	One bed-room (part of choultry); no furniture; food not obtainable.	8 annas for a single person and 12 annas for a married couple.	Taluk Board, Polláchi.
	Mount Stuart ...	District Forest Officer's rest-house, consisting of three rooms, two bath-rooms and two store-rooms with a verandah on two sides. Iron roof. Stabling for two horses. The bungalow is neither furnished nor can food be obtained in it.	......	Forest department.
	Polláchi ...	A sitting room and two bed-rooms; stabling for three horses; furnished with two tables, two cots, four chairs and two basins with stand; food cannot be obtained.	8 annas for a single person and 12 annas for a married couple.	Taluk Board, Polláchi.
		Depôt, consisting of a small room and a verandah all round, inside, and another outside; tiled; used as a rest-house occasionally. The compound is used as a timber depôt. The bungalow is neither furnished nor can food be obtained in it.	......	Forest department.
	Séttumadai	District Forest Officer's rest-house, consisting of three rooms, one bath-room and one store-room, with verandahs on two sides; tiled; stabling for three horses. The bungalow is neither furnished nor can food be obtained in it. This building is also used by officers of other departments.	......	Forest department.

List of Travellers' Bungalows in the District of Coimbatore—cont.

Taluk.	Station.	Nature of accommodation.	Charge per diem.	By whom maintained.
Pollāchi—*cont.*	Villóni	Rest-house, consisting of two rooms with an open thatched verandah in front; tiled; used as rest-house by a Forester. The bungalow is neither furnished nor can food be obtained in it.	......	Forest department.
Satyamangalam.	Bennári	One bed-room (part of choultry); stabling for a single horse; furnished with two tables, two stools and one cot; food cannot be obtained.	8 annas for a single person and 12 annas for a married couple.	Taluk Board, Satyamangalam.
	Dhimbam	One bed-room and one bath-room (part of choultry); stabling for two horses; furnished with three tables, four stools and three chairs; food cannot be obtained.	Do. do. ...	
	Geddésál	One room and a bath-room; not furnished	......	Forest department.
	Gazzalhatti	A bed-room and another room (part of choultry); furnished with a table, three stools and two cots; food cannot be obtained.	None	Taluk Board, Satyamangalam.
	Gópichettipálaiyam.	Two bed-rooms (part of choultry); furnished with a table, two chairs and an iron cot; food cannot be obtained.	8 annas for a single person and 12 annas for a married couple.	
	Kodivéri	Two halls and a bath-room; furnished with a table and chairs; small bazaars across the river; large bazaars at Satyamangalam, 4 miles distant.	Free for 10 days, if not required by P.W.D.; 8 annas for subsequent days.	Public Works department.
	Kottamangalam ...	One bed-room; furnished with tables, chairs, a stool and a cot; food cannot be obtained.	8 annas for a single person and 12 annas for a married couple.	Taluk Board, Satyamangalam.
	Punjaipuliyampatti.	One bed-room and one bath-room (part of choultry); furnished with two tables and four stools; food cannot be obtained.	Do. do. ...	
	Satyamangalam ...	Two bed-rooms; stabling for three horses; furnished with tables, chairs and an iron cot; food cannot be obtained.	Do. do. ...	

List of Travellers' Bungalows in the District of Coimbatore—cont.

Taluk.	Station.	Nature of accommodation.	Charge per diem.	By whom maintained.
Satyamangalam—*cont.*	Talaimalai	One bed-room and another room (part of choultry); furnished with a table, two stools and a cot.	None	Taluk Board, Satyamangalam.
	Tálavádi	One bed-room and two other rooms (part of choultry); furnished with a table, two chairs, two stools and a cot; food cannot be obtained.	8 annas for a single person and 12 annas for a married couple.	
	Velámúndi	Two bed-rooms; furnished with three tables, two chairs, three benches and three cots; food cannot be obtained.	Do. do. ...	
Udamalpet ...	Elaiyamuttúr ...	Only one room; unfurnished; usual supplies available in the adjacent village.	None	Public Works department.
	Madattukkalam ...	Two rooms; unfurnished; usual supplies available in the adjacent village.	Do.	
	Periyapatti	A bed-room; furnished with a table and two chairs; food cannot be obtained.	8 annas for a single person and 12 annas for a married couple.	Taluk Board, Polláchi.
	Udamalpet	Two bed-rooms; stabling for four horses; furnished with a table, two chairs, three benches, two wooden stands, one wooden cot, two basins, and commodes; food cannot be obtained.	Do. do. ...	

List of Chatrams.

Taluk.	Village.	Name of chatram.	To what classes of people is it open.	Whether meals are supplied free.	Number of days a traveller can obtain free meals.	Remarks.
Bhaváni ...	Bhaváni	Bhaváni chatram	All classes ...	No ...	...	These are local fund chatrams used merely as places of halt by travellers.
	Kavundappádi ...	Kavundappádi chatram ...				
	Nadukkával	Nadukkával chatram ...				
Coimbatore ...	Kóvilpálaiyam ...	Kóvilpálaiyam chatram ...	All classes	No ...	...	
	Coimbatore ...	Nanjappa Rao's chatram ...	Do. ...	No ...	...	
		Cochin Nanjappayya's chatram.	Bráhmans only ...	Yes ...	Three days.	
	Pérúr	Kumáraswámi Kavundan's chatram.	All classes	Yes ...	Do.	
		Panguni Náyar's chatram ...	Do. ...	Yes ...	Do.	
	Vellakkinar	Káliyappa Kavundan's chatram.	Do. ...	Yes ...	Do.	
	Singánallúr	Anantaráma Aiyar's chatram.	Do. ...	No ...	...	
	Wálayár	Parasuráma Aiyar's chatram.	Do. ...	Yes ...	Three days.	
	Pódanúr	Toppa Mudaliár's chatram ...	All classes	No ...	...	
	Kandékavundan Sálai.	Arumápatti chatram ...	Open to poor people ...	...	...	Conjee water is daily given to the poor.
	Gúdalúr	Gúdalúr chatram ...	All classes	No ...	...	These are local fund chatrams used merely as places of halt by travellers.
	Chinnaiyampálaiyam	Rámánujan chatram ...				
	Ettimadai	Ettimadai chatram ...				
	Settippálaiyam ...	Settippálaiyam chatram ...				
	Méttuppálaiyam ...	Méttuppálaiyam chatram ...				
	Annúr	Annúr chatram				

List of Chatrams—cont.

Taluk.	Village.	Name of chatram.	To what classes of people is it open.	Whether meals are supplied free.	Number of days a traveller can obtain free meals.	Remarks.
Dhárápuram ...	Dhárápuram ...	Dásari Náyudu's chatram ...	Bráhmans and Súdras.	Yes	Once on the first day of the traveller's halt.	
		Do. do. ...	Bairágis	Yes	Do.	
		Kullama Náyakkan's chatram.	Bráhmans	No	...	
		Kómati chatram	Do.	No	...	
		Chinniah Pillai's chatram ...	Súdras	No	...	
	Sittarávuttanpálaiyam.	Vadamalai Dása Udaiyán's chatram.	Bráhmans and Súdras.	No	...	
		Náráyana Udaiyán's chatram.	Do. ...	No	...	
		Vírappa Kavundan's chatram.	Do. ...	No	...	
	Sinna Marudúr ...	Chatrappatti chatram ...	Súdras	No	...	
	Nanjiyampálaiyam ...	Venkatáchalam Pillai's chatram.	Do.	No	...	
	Alangiyam	Subramanya Chetti chatram.	Bráhmans and Súdras.	No	...	
	Puttúr	Tirumalaiswámi's chatram ...	Do. ...	No	...	
	Kángayam	Agrahára chatram	Bráhmans	No	...	
	Kolattuppálaiyam ...	Subbaráya Kavundan's chatram.	Bráhmans and Súdras.	No	...	

II.

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List of Chatrams—cont.

Taluk.	Village.	Name of chatram.	To what classes of people is it open.	Whether meals are supplied free.	Number of days a traveller can obtain free meals.	Remarks.
Dhárápuram—*cont.*	Kángayam	Kángayam chatram				These are local fund chatrams used merely as places of halt by travellers.
	Vellaikkóvil	Vellaikkóvil chatram ...				
	Údiyúr	Údiyúr chatram	All classes	No	...	
	Muttúr	Muttúr chatram				
	Múlanúr	Múlanúr chatram				
	Kundadam	Kundadam chatram				
Erode	Únjalúr	Lakshmi Narasaiyar's chatram.	Bráhmans only ...	Yes	Three days.	
	Kodumudi	Annáji Rao's chatram ...	Do. ...	Yes	Do.	
	Erode	Ellaiyar's chatram near the market.	Hindus generally ...	No	...	
		Ellaiyar's chatram near the Cauvery river.	Do. ...	No	...	
		Municipal chatram near the railway station.	All classes	No	...	
		Municipal chatram near the channel.	Hindus generally ...	No	...	
	Perundurai	Perundurai chatram ...				These are local fund chatrams used merely as places of halt by travellers.
	Vijayamangalam ...	Vijayamangalam chatram ...				
	Sengappalli	Sengappalli chatram ...	All classes	No	...	
	Sittódu	Sittódu chatram				
	Malayampálaiyam ...	Malayampálaiyam chatram...				
Karúr	Pasupatipálaiyam ...	Pasupatipálaiyam chatram ...	Bráhmans	Yes	Once in fifteen days for ten Bráhmans.	

List of Chatrams—cont.

Taluk.	Village.	Name of chatram.	To what classes of people is it open.	Whether meals are supplied free.	Number of days a traveller can obtain free meals.	Remarks.
Karúr—*cont.* ...	Manmangalam ...	Manmangalam chatram ...	All classes	No	...	
	Tóranakkalpatti ...	Tóranakkalpatti chatram ...	Do.	No	...	
	Puttámbúr	Puttámbúr chatram	Do.	No	...	
	Anaippálaiyam ...	Anaippálaiyam chatram ...	Bráhmans only ...	Yes ...	Every day.	
	Karúr	Subbaráya Chetti's chatram.	Hindus	Yes ...	One day.	
		Annáji Rao's chatram ...	Bráhmans	No	...	
		Ponmudi Venkatráma Aiyar's chatram.	Do.	No	...	
		Mantri Ráj Venkatráma Aiyar's chatram.	Do.	No	...	
		Municipal chatram	All classes	No	...	This is now used as a school; orders have been issued to remove the school from the building.
	Tándóni	Kómati chatram	Bráhmans	Yes ...	Once in a year at the time of the festival in the local temple.	
		Kuppaiyar's chatram ...	Do.	Yes ...		
		Srínivásaswámi chatram ...	Do.	Yes ...		
		Oil-mongers' chatram ...	Hindus	No	...	
		Náyakkar chatram	Do.	No	...	
		Reddi's chatram	Do.	No	...	

List of Chatrams—cont.

Taluk.	Village.	Name of chatram.	To what classes of people is it open.	Whether meals are supplied free.	Number of days a traveller can obtain free meals.	Remarks.
Karúr—*cont.* ...	Paramatt	Paramatti chatram	All classes	No	...	These are loca fund chatrams used merely as places of halt by travellers.
	Punnam	Punnam chatram				
	Nágampalli	Nágampalli chatram ...				
	Tennilai	Tennilai chatram				
	Sinna Dhárápuram ...	Sinna Dhárápuram chatram.				
	Aravakkuric'chi ...	Aravakkuric'chi chatram ...				
Kollégál ...	Hanúr	Kómati chatram	All classes	No	...	
	Kowdalli	Do.				
	Bailúr	Bailúr chatram	All classes	No	...	These two, which were once local fund chatrams, are now under the charge of the Forest department.
	Lokkanahalli ...	Lokkanahalli chatram ...				
Palladam ...	Náranápuram ...	Angappa Chettiár's chatram.	Bráhmans and Súdras.	Meals free to Bráhmans.	Three days.	
	Tiruppúr	Do. do. ...	Do. ...	Do. ...	Do.	
		Kángayam Kavundan's chatram.	Do. ...	No	...	
	Súlúr	Kuppu Náyakkan's chatram.	All classes	No	...	
	Mádappúr	Mádappúr chatram				
	Malaippálaiyam ...	Malaippálaiyam chatram ...				
	Mandripálaiyam ..	Mandripálaiyam chatram ...				
	Kallakkinar	Kallakkinar chatram ...				

List of Chatrams—cont.

Taluk.	Village.	Name of chatram.	To what classes of people is it open.	Whether meals are supplied free.	Number of days a traveller can obtain free meals.	Remarks.
Palladam—*cont.*	Avanási ...	Annáji Rao's chatram ...	Bráhmans	Yes	Meals given once a year at the time of the car festival at the place.	
		Avanási chatram	All classes	No	...	These are local fund chatrams used merely as places of halt by travellers.
	Karumuttampatti ..	Karumuttampatti chatram ..				
	Avánasipálaiyam ...	Avanásipálaiyam chatram ...				
	Mandripálaiyam ..	Mandripálaiyam chatram ...				
	Kálippálaiyam ...	Kálippálaiyam chatram ...				
	Nallúr	Nallúr chatram				
	Kódangipálaiyam ...	Kódangipalaiyam chatram ...				
	Tiruppúr	Tiruppúr chatram				
Polláchi ...	Polláchi	Subbaráya Kálingaráya Kavundan's chatram ...	Súdras	No	...	
		Érpatti Timmaiyan's chatram.	Bráhmans	No	...	
		Chamai Kavundan's chatram.	Bráhmans and Súdras.	No	...	
		Polláchi chatram	All classes	No	...	These are local fund chatrams used merely as places of halt by travellers.
	Gómangalam ...	Gómangalam chatram ...				
	Kinattukkadavu ...	Kinattukkadavu chatram ...				
	Márchináyakkanpálaiyam.	Márchináyakkanpálaiyam chatram.				

List of Chatrams—cont.

Taluk.	Village.	Name of chatram.	To what classes of people is it open.	Whether meals are supplied free.	Number of days a traveller can obtain free meals.	Remarks.
Satyamangalam.	Satyamangalam ...	Satyamangalam chatram ...	All classes	No	...	These are local fund chatrams used merely as places of halt by travellers.
	Bennári	Bennári chatram				
	Dhimbam ...	Dhimbam chatram				
	Hássanúr	Hássanúr chatram				
	Puliyampatti ...	Puliyampatti chatram ...				
	Kottamangalam ...	Kottamangalam chatram ...				
	Talaimalai	Talaimalai chatram				
	Tálavádi	Tálavádi chatram				
	Gazzalhatti	Gazzalhatti chatram ...				
	Velámúndi	Velámúndi chatram				
	Geddésál	Geddésál chatram				
	Gópichettipálaiyam ...	Gópichettipálaiyam chatram.				
Udamalpet ...	Udamalpet	Subbaráyar's chatram ...	Bráhmans	Yes	Three meals.	
	Káraittozhuvu ...	Kaniyúr Krishna Aiyar's chatram.	Do.	Yes	Do.	
	Kozhumam	Do. do. ...	Do.	Yes	Do.	
	Komaralingam ...	Rámaswámi Kavundan's chatram.	All travellers going to Palni for the car festival.	Yes	Do.	
	Madattukkalam ...	Madattukkalam chatram ...	All classes ...	No	...	These are local fund chatrams used merely as places of halt by travellers.
	Periyapatti	Periyapatti chatram ...				
	Puduppálaiyam ...	Puduppálaiyam chatram ...				
	Udamalpet	Udamalpet chatram				

CHAPTER VIII.

OCCUPATIONS AND TRADE.

CHAP. VIII. OCCUPATIONS. Agriculture.

THE subjoined statement shows the proportion of the population of Coimbatore depending on the several classes of occupations :—

Class.	Percentage.	
	Coimbatore.	Presidency.
A.—Government	1·73	2·56
B.—Pasture and agriculture	57·83	61·39
C.—Personal services	2·97	2·99
D.—Preparation and supply of material substances.	24·90	18·64
E.—Commerce, transport and storage	1·84	2·47
F.—Professions	2·01	2·03
G.—Indefinite occupations	8·72	9·92
TOTAL ...	100·00	100·00

NOTE.—These statistics have been compiled from the census tables of 1891 and include not only persons who actually exercise an occupation, but all those that are dependent on it.

More than one-half of the inhabitants are dependent for their livelihood on pasture and agriculture. The total number of these is 1,159,173, and there are in addition a number of individuals who have an interest in land, although this is not their principal means of subsistence. Further, many of the 133,034 persons who have been returned as general labourers are in reality engaged in agricultural operations for at least part of the year. Of the 1,159,173 persons actually returned as dependent on pasture and agriculture, 35,292 come under the former head. The majority (19,316) are herdsmen; 8,600 are shepherds; cattle breeders and dealers number 3,649, and sheep and goat breeders 2,857. Many of the so-called 'herdsmen,' however, are little boys and girls employed in tending cattle, sheep and goats. The number of cattle breeders and dealers is the largest found in any district of the presidency, not even excepting Nellore. The Bargúr, Kángayam and Álambádi breeds of Coimbatore are well known. The statistics relating to agriculture proper merit special attention. The total number of persons dependent directly on this calling is 1,123,881 and nearly all of these belong to the classes given on the margin. By far the most important of these sections are

Land occupants, not cultivating.	117,907
Land occupants, cultivating.	653,503
Tenants, not cultivating ...	152
Tenants and sharers, cultivating.	141,157
Farm-servants	56,056
Field labourers and crop-watchers.	148,304

CHAP. VIII. OCCUPATIONS. Agriculture

the land owners who farm their lands themselves, the yeomen of the country, as they may fairly be called on account alike of their status and their importance. Practically the whole of them are ryots, that is they hold their lands on the ryotwári tenure, the nature of which is described in chapter XVIII. The average size of a farm is small, and in most cases very little labour over and above that supplied by the ryot and his family is required for its cultivation. The merits and demerits of their methods of cultivation and the advantages and disadvantages of small holdings have been discussed elsewhere,[1] but whatever may be the view taken of these questions, there can be but one opinion as to the importance in the social body of this section of the inhabitants of the district. In numbers they form one-third of the total population; as producers they are so far in advance of any other class that it is difficult to put their position in figures. They belong for the most part to the great Vellála caste, but they also include the Telugu Kammas and Vadugans, the Kanarese Vakkaligas and many of the Tottiyan and Palli castes.

The next section of landowners, those who do not farm their own lands, are probably not so numerous as the census figures represent, for in many cases the entry in the schedule of the word 'cultivation' after the equivalent of the word 'landowner' was undoubtedly omitted, and this was especially noticeable in the case of the dependent members of a household. It may then be confidently asserted that the number of owners who let their lands is considerably less than the figure given in the census tables, but it is impossible to state even approximately the extent of the error. This class consists largely of Bráhmans, who are forbidden to follow the plough themselves, of Chettis, whose chief calling is trade and who hold land merely as an investment, and of women of the cultivating castes, who are preventend by their sex from farming their lands. Nearly all the properties are small. The large landlords, who bear any resemblance to the landlord class in England, could be counted on the fingers.

The tenant-farmers, like the non-farming land-owners, are also probably less in number than the census figurers show, for in many cases the only entry in the occupation column of the schedule was the vernacular equivalent of the word 'cultivation,' and in order to be on the safe side this was taken to denote a tenant and not an owner. The tenant-farmers, except those holding under poligars and other large landholders, occupy, as a rule, a position much inferior to that of the ryot, having less wealth and getting a much smaller share of the produce. They are often members of

[1] See chapter V. of vol. I. and chapter XVIII. of this volume.

the labouring castes who have raised themselves somewhat in the scale. They have, however, but little property and can make no stand against any serious seasonal calamity.

CHAP. VIII. OCCUPATIONS.

Agriculture.

The agricultural labourers number 204,360, or about 20 per cent. of those engaged in agriculture. There are about two labourers to every nine farmers, a proportion which indicates the prevalence of the system of small holdings worked by the farmer himself with no other help than that of his family. The actual number of agricultural labourers is, however, probably larger than the figure given here, as many of the 'general labourers' of the census tables are engaged either wholly or in part in agricultural work. But even after this correction has been made there is not one labourer to every three farmers. Nearly two-sevenths of the labourers are farm-servants who are employed throughout the year; the rest are engaged for special work only, such as transplanting and harvesting, and even if employed longer are paid by the month and can be dispensed with when work is slack. These figures, however, must be received with caution, as the distinction between the two classes of labourers was not always well understood by the enumerators.

For an account of the agricultural practices of the district reference should be made to chapter V of the first volume of this manual.

Preparation and supply of material substances.

Next in importance to 'Agriculture' are the 'Preparation and supply of material substances,' which support 499,136 persons or about a fourth of the entire population. Workers and dealers in leather number 125,274; there are 120,777 persons engaged in preparing and supplying articles of food and drink, and 90,666 others employed in the cotton industry.

Leather workers.

The leather industry is chiefly carried on by members of the Chakkiliyan and Mádiga castes, of whom there are over 180,000 in the district. The number of persons actually supported by the industry however is only 125,274, and the difference indicates the extent to which members of these castes have left the hereditary calling. Leather is chiefly tanned at Coimbatore, where there are two large and well-managed yards, as well as one each at Kuric'chi and Méttuppálaiyam; there is also one at Pallapatti and two near Karúr, those at Karúr itself having recently been closed. Full particulars regarding these tanneries are not available, but the value of the leather turned out annually must be at least ten lakhs of rupees.

Goat and sheep skins are chiefly dealt with and form an important article of the export trade, many thousands per month being sometimes dealt with by a single firm. The materials used are

CHAP. VIII. OCCUPATIONS.

Leather workers.

solely lime, the bark of *Cassia auriculata* (ávâram), myrabolans (kadukkâi) and oil. The process is much more speedy than in England, chiefly owing to the thinness of the skins and the rapidity of action under a tropical sky; even ox hides are tanned in about forty-two days. The thicker hides would often be improved by a slower process. Ordinary sheep skins are tanned in from fifteen to twenty days. The process is very simple: the skins are limed, haired, passed through bark infusions of increasing strength, finished off, chiefly it is said for colour, with an infusion of myrabolans, and finally dried, oiled, rubbed and polished and stored.

Leather well-buckets are a source of much profit to the Chucklers; each well-lift requires a new one every year, and as there are about 85,000 lifts in actual use, approximately this number of buckets, each requiring one ox hide, are used per year. They are circular-mouthed bags, about two feet wide, tapering for about three feet, and fastened to a leather tube of some four or five feet long; their cost is about Rs. 6. Raw buffalo hide ropes are frequently used for these lifts. Leather sandals are also made in vast quantities by the Chucklers, and are sold at 8 to 12 annas per pair.

Bones.

The bones of dead animals are much valued as manure, and a large number of persons find a lucrative employment in collecting and preparing them for the market. The exact number of these is not known, as the census statistics only give the total number of dealers in hides, horns and bones. The bones are crushed and ground by machinery, and there are two factories in the district which carry on the industry. These are owned, respectively, by Messrs. Stanes and Company and Peirce, Leslie and Company; the former is worked by steam power, and the latter by manual labour. At the first-mentioned factory about 172 tons of bones were crushed during the year 1894, and their value is estimated at Rs. 9,500; the outturn of the latter was 58 tons, worth Rs. 2,904.

Food and drink.

Of persons engaged in the supply of food and drink, the most ubiquitous is the keeper of the petty miscellaneous or '*chillara*' shop, which is found in every village of any size. In the census tables these shopkeepers appear under the head of grocers and condiment dealers and they number 18,540. Betel-leaf and areca-nut sellers number 11,047, tobacco and snuff manufacturers and sellers 5,544, and salt sellers 1,935. These articles, however, are extensively sold in the *chillara* shops referred to above, and it is to these shops that the villagers go for their grain, though farmers and land-owners generally have their own stores. Meat is not much eaten by the rural population, and there are only 717 butchers in the whole district; this number, like all the census statistics of

Food and drink.

occupation, includes the women and children dependent upon the butchers, so that the actual number of the latter is only about 140, assuming five persons to a family. Cow and buffalo keepers, including milk and butter sellers, number 2,424, and there are only 2,162 ghee (clarified butter) preparers and sellers. Milk, curds, ghee and butter-milk are used a good deal by the people, but the villagers as a rule have their own cows or cow-buffaloes, and it is only in towns that a special business is made of the preparation and sale of these articles. Fish is eaten to some extent, but the fishermen number only 2,450. These fish in the tanks and rivers, the fishery rights in large tanks being sold by auction every year, but the small tanks and the rivers are free. The fish chiefly eaten by the people, however, is salt-fish, most of which comes from the curing yards on the west coast. Vegetables and fruits are important and widely used articles of diet, and there are 3,357 vegetable sellers and 845 sellers of fruit. Nearly every villager grows his own vegetables, and even the poorest labourer usually has a little vegetable plot in his back-yard or somewhere near his house, on which he grows a few chillies, gourds and cucumbers. The fruits chiefly used are cocoanuts, plantains, oranges and mangoes.

Toddy-drawing

Of the different classes engaged in the preparation and supply of articles of food and drink, toddy-drawers and sellers are numerically the most important. Toddy-drawing is the chief means of subsistence of the Shánáns. Toddy is obtained from the cocoanut, palmyra and sago palms, the two latter yielding more than the former. A man can on an average tap from 15 to 20 trees a day, and his average daily income from this source, after deducting the charges, which consist chiefly of the tree-tax, amounts to about 4 annas.

Manufacture of jaggery.

The manufacture and sale of jaggery support 4,610 persons, of whom 1,936 are males and 2,674 females. Jaggery is of three sorts —palmyra, cocoanut and cane. The first is made by Shánáns only, especially in the north of Dhárápuram and in Erode. It is a very coarse product, containing much invert sugar and molasses, greatly discoloured by the rude process of manufacture. It is chiefly exported or sent to Coimbatore for distilling purposes. Candy from palmyra jaggery is, however, very good. For jaggery the fresh juice is simply boiled down in open earthen pots over a smoky wood fire: a little lime is probably added as in collecting-pots on the trees. It is said that 20 lb. of juice produce about 2½ lb. of jaggery, worth about an anna.

Cocoanut jaggery is only made near Coimbatore; the process is similar to the above. The produce of 20 lb. of juice is said to be 3 lb., worth something over one anna.

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Manufacture of jaggery.

Cane jaggery is an important product, and the trade, as also that in sugar, might be immensely developed. For details of the manufacture and the area on which cane is now grown and might be further grown near Coimbatore, see chapter V of the first volume.

Coffee-curing.

The curing of coffee is largely carried on at Coimbatore, the produce of the Shevaroys and part of the Nílgiris being sent thither for being cured. There are two coffee-curing factories in Coimbatore, which are owned by Messrs. Stanes and Company and Messrs. Peirce, Leslie and Company. Both are worked by steam-power, the former from January to May and from October to December, and the latter for nine months in the year. The average number of persons employed daily during the working season of 1894 was about 250 in both, the maximum being 400. During the same year about 1,050 tons of coffee, worth Rs. 15,39,000, were cured in them. Details of the cost of curing are not available.

Oil-pressing.

Oil-pressers and sellers number 5,598. The oils chiefly used are castor and gingelly. Ground-nut oil is not largely expressed, though the nut is grown in Karúr; cotton-seed oil is not known, and probably only the uppam variety would yield a paying quantity. Cocoanuts are not grown in sufficient quantities to be pressed for oil.

Some care is taken with gingelly, a fine oil being obtainable when the seeds have been cleaned of their external colouring matter by washing and attrition. The quantity of oil obtained is 25 per cent. by measure of the seed in husk.

It is usual with ryots to give the Vániyan (oil-monger) so many measures of gingelly seed, for which they expect oil in the above proportion; the oil-monger gets his profit from the cake, which is sold for feeding cattle; probably he also gets some oil in addition. If paid, the rate is 4 annas per charge of 12 Madras measures. The process of pressing is that of the common pestle-and-mortar bullock mill, the pestle being rubbed forcibly against the sides of the mortar by a simple arrangement. The process is effective in getting out oil, as it combines attrition with pressure, but it is extremely slow and wasteful of power, partly owing to the immense friction. The maximum quantity of oil obtainable per day with one mill is 12 Madras measures, expressed from 48 Madras measures of seed, being four charges of 12 Madras measures each. This requires two pairs of bullocks working alternately, each charge taking three hours. Twelve Madras measures equal about 4 gallons, so that the process is extremely slow, laborious and expensive. Moreover the oil is dirty, as dust and vegetable matter, including the colouring matter of the seed, are ground into the oil.

The hand process of cleaning gingelly is also rude and slow; friction in a revolving barrel would probably clean it better and much more quickly. The above remarks apply to ground-nut pressing. Castor-oil is chiefly obtained from the larger variety; it is the dirty, nauseous and malodorous fluid known as country lamp oil. It is obtained, not by milling, but by roasting, pounding and boiling the seeds; the refuse is used for fuel and manure.

Oil-pressing.

In addition to these clumsy-looking country-made mills, which are found in almost every village, there are three oil mills in Coimbatore designed on the European pattern; one of these is worked by steam power, while at the other two manual labour is employed. Two of these mills are oil-cake presses rather than oil mills, and in 1894 the outturn was a little more than 1,200 tons of cake, worth about half a lakh of rupees.

Firewood-cutting.

There are 21,691 persons in the district who derive their support from the collection and sale of firewood and grass. Of these 7,296 are males and 14,395 females, and the large preponderance of the latter shows that the work is chiefly done by females. The numbers are relatively large owing in part to the extensive forests of the district, coupled with the liberal issue of permits by the Forest department for cutting and removing wood. The only instruments employed are a bill-hook and a sickle, the former for lopping off branches of trees and the latter for cutting grass.

Brick and tiles.

Brick and tile burners and sellers number 850. The bricks and tiles made in the district are all of an ordinary kind, but can be made of special quality to order; the sub-collector's office at Erode is built of excellent table bricks from the clay of the wet lands near the river. The Madras Railway Company make very fine kiln-burnt table bricks at Pódanúr; these are equal to any work. Tiles are very poor, of bad clay, badly shaped and burnt; both pot-tiles shaped on the wheel and other tiles are made.

Carpenters.

The number of carpenters is 14,200. They are found in all towns and in every village of any size. They make the wood-work of ploughs and other agricultural implements, oil and sugar mills, the doors and door-frames of houses, &c. Their tools are rude and simple and their work is rough and without much finish; but their hereditary instincts and aptitude are great, and the time may yet come when Indian carpentry work will compete successfully in the markets of Europe.

Carts.

The census tables show 149 cart-makers, carriage-makers and sellers, but carts are often made by ordinary carpenters in towns, and even in country villages. Those made in Dhárápuram town are especially remarkable for their strength and durability. They are cheap and good, costing from Rs. 40 to Rs. 60 each and lasting

CHAP. VIII. OCCUPATIONS.

Carts.

from seven to fourteen years. A two-bullock cart with 5 feet wheels, side frame, and centre pole of ven-ték, karuvéla spokes and felloes, axle tree of ic'chi or atti, yoke of ven-ték or ála, costs complete Rs. 38 or Rs. 40, and will last seven or eight years. If with 5 feet 6 inches wheels, teak spokes and felloes, nave of purusa or vágai, irumbagam side frames and centre pole, and yoke of ven-ték or tadash, the cost will be Rs. 55 or Rs. 60 and its life thirteen or fourteen years. Irumbagam, tadash and purusa woods are obtained from Palghat. The naves are turned in the common dead-centre country lathe, in which the work is set between two fixed centres and driven by a rope passed round the work itself from a separate wheel turned by hand. This lathe is also used for furniture, and very neat and true work is turned out by it; nothing in the way of cabinet work is done, but merely plain cots, chairs, &c. A contractor (Eurasian) at Coimbatore is able to turn out excellent work. Coimbatore builders make very neat bullock coaches of seasoned wood, thoroughly well painted and lined, and light running.

Metal-workers.

Workers in metals and precious stones number 24,946; of these 14,540 are gold and silver workers, 1,114 are brass pot makers and sellers, 1,507 bell-metal workers and sellers, and 5,877 blacksmiths. Gold and silver smiths are of an ordinary kind; brass vessels are made to a small extent, but there is nothing peculiar about them. Good gongs of bell-metal are made at Anaippálaiyam near Tiruppúr, the particular mixture being a trade secret.

Iron.

Iron is now but little smelted owing to the want of charcoal. Buchanan saw furnaces in many places, *e.g.*, near Sennimalai, Múlanúr, &c., where none now exists, and quite recently a well-known smelting village near Kinattukkadavu, in the north of Polláchi, has given up the business. A good deal is still made in the forest taluks of Bhaváni and Satyamangalam; solid ore is never used, but only black sand, which is found in the beds of surface streams after the rains are over. This is smelted with an enormous proportion of charcoal in a rude conical furnace urged by the common country bellows; the iron is never completely melted so as to run, but is taken out as a white hot bloom, and at once cut nearly in two by blows from an axe. It is somewhat spongy and full of unconsumed charcoal; it is bought by ryots and Oddas in this state and worked up under repeated forgings by the village smiths. In this stony district, with its hard sub-soil, implements of ordinary English iron are useless, the mamoti edge curling up like pasteboard; hence most of the implements of this sort, especially the Oddas' mamotis, are made of

native charcoal iron, which appears to be a tough fibrous semi-steel and takes an excellent edge. The price of good native iron is from 50 to 100 per cent. above that of the English iron found in the markets. Blacksmiths are found in all towns and in most considerable villages. Their usual work is the manufacture and repair of agricultural implements, but in Udamalpet they make iron bedsteads and chairs which are as good as and cheaper than those made in Madras.

Iron.

Pottery.

Pottery consists only of the usual porous earthenware made by every potter from tank silt; it is coarse-grained ferruginous ware, which turns black and melts into a dirty slag at a moderate heat and will take no glaze. Ample materials are available for good terra-cotta and common stoneware where a pure white colour is not required; the felspar and quartz are excellent and abundant; neither ball clay nor kaolin is found, but grey clay from Trichinopoly, burning a fair cream-white, can be got cheaply, while the red clay procured locally by levigating the red loam is a fine one, burning of a good colour at a moderate heat, and giving good tints of pink and red if mixed with grey clay, felspar and quartz, when it will stand a good heat and take vigorous glazes. Excellent glazed tiles for municipal and other work and impervious vessels for domestic use might be cheaply made. The total number of potters is 16,893.

Lapidaries.

About ten families at Settipálaiyam, a village near Tiruppúr, work crystals for spectacles and make crystal and glass beads and various kinds of ornaments, lingams and other sacred symbols and images. The process is exceedingly simple like all native processes, but the work turned out is neat and well finished. The crystals, &c., are ground on emery discs which are prepared as follows:—Corundum, which is said to be found in the neighbourhood, is first pounded up to any desired degree of fineness, a sufficient quantity of lac to form the disc is melted up and mixed with the powdered corundum; as the lac cools, it is flattened out to a circular shape on a stone which has been first sprinkled with a little more of the powder to give the surface of the disc the proper texture. A number of discs are prepared in this way with corundum powdered more or less finely to suit the quality of the work. They are attached by a little melted lac to the ordinary native lathe which is worked with a bow in the ordinary way except that the crystal worker turns the lathe with the right hand and works with the left and does not, like the carpenter or metal-worker, employ an assistant. The discs are of course kept wet while the crystals are being ground. Smooth wooden discs are used for the final polishing processes, the crystals being worked with water and a paste made of corundum very finely ground. Crystals are procured

CHAP. VIII. OCCUPATIONS. — Lapidaries.

locally and from the surrounding districts. The amethysts found at Vallam near Tanjore are sent to Settipálaiyam to be polished. The workmen, however, are not particular in the choice of materials; when they have no special order on hand, they will use any coloured pebble or pieces of broken glass to make up into ornaments.

Weaving.

The total number of persons returned as subsisting by the preparation and sale of wool, silk, cotton, jute, flax and coir is 94,685, and of this number 71,080 appear under the head of cotton weavers. The return is probably defective in the case of some of the smaller industries included in the group, for when the entry in the schedule was simply weaver, it was taken to be a cotton weaver, though several of them were no doubt weavers of silk, wool and other fabrics. The strength of the weaving and dyeing castes is 77,000, which is less than the number of persons who live by weaving and dyeing. It may be concluded with a fair amount of confidence that weavers have not been driven to other occupations, as is so often alleged, by the competition of Manchester goods. The Kaikólans are the most numerous of the weaving castes and produce only the ordinary common country cloths worn by the people which always find a ready market. The process of weaving is very simple and does not differ materially from that adopted in other districts.

Cotton.

Cotton is largely spun into thread, but machine twist is chiefly used in weaving. The ordinary goods are coarse pieces of little individual value, but in Coimbatore town there are still a few weavers of great skill who are able to work in 200 and 230 thread; some of their goods were exhibited at the Madras Exhibition of 1883. At Tiruppúr and Dhárápuram a few families make rough palampores and other chintzes of a common description. In Savuripálaiyam not far from the Singánallúr railway station, in Morattuppálaiyam in the Erode taluk, in the Christian villages near Sómanúr railway station and in Sédapálaiyam near Karúr, the native weavers have begun to manufacture a shirting cloth in imitation of that made at the Basel Mission and elsewhere. For this there has been a considerable demand, the cloth being good and the price low. The total number of looms in the district in 1894–95 was 12,155, and the estimated outturn was valued at Rs. 19,27,000, or at Rs 159 per loom.

The cotton grown in the district is cleaned and pressed at a factory and is sent to Madras or Bombay for shipment to Europe. There are eight of these factories in the district, four of which are worked by steam, and they all carry on a lucrative business. The subjoined statement shows the quantity and value of the work turned out at each factory during the year 1894:—

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OCCUPATIONS.

Cotton.

Name of factory.	Nature of industry.	Average number of persons employed.	Annual outturn.		Remarks.
			Quantity.	Value.	
1	2	3	4	5	6
			LB.	RS.	
Messrs. Binny and Company, Erode. *	Cotton-pressing.	30	778,050	1,31,656	
Messrs. Binny and Company, Erode.	Cotton-cleaning.	Did not work during the year.			
Cotton Press of certain merchants, Palladam.*	Cotton-pressing.	95	791,700	1,45,145	
Madras Cotton-cleaning Company (Ld.), Palladam. †	Cotton-cleaning and pressing.	35	613,190	1,06,130	
Cotton-pressing Company (Ld.), Tiruppúr †	Cotton-pressing.	57	3,600,000	6,99,600	
Cotton-cleaning Company, Tiruppúr. †	Cotton-cleaning.	26	323,374	67,975	
Messrs. Karumji Sait and Company, Palladam. *	Cotton-pressing.	81	265,500	53,930	
Messrs. Stanes and Company, Coimbatore. †	Do.	36	3,720,000 72,100 8,888	7,14,200 6,760 2,220	Cotton. Cinchona. Raw fibre.

* Worked by manual labour. † Worked by steam power.

Cotton carpets of excellent quality and colour are made by a few families at Bhaváni; they were exhibited at Madras in 1883 and took a first prize. The river water is said to be specially excellent for the colours used, which are chiefly country-made vegetable dyes, though the anilines are unfortunately coming in. Bhaváni is said to have been once famous for its dyes; but the art seems to have been lost, for indigo is now the only dye which is prepared locally. Country thread is nearly always used for the warp, while English thread is preferred for the weft. This practice is just the reverse of that which is usually adopted for cotton cloth weaving. Another point to be noticed is the custom of arranging the warp perpendicularly for cotton carpets; this entails a rather awkward arrangement for working the 'healds' of the loom, but probably when the pattern is intricate, it is, on the whole, the most convenient method. There can be no doubt, however, that for the commoner patterns of simple stripes, the horizontal position saves much time; it is seldom adopted, probably because the weavers' houses are, as a rule, too small to admit of it.

CHAP. VIII. OCCUPATIONS. Cotton.

The total number of persons supported by the cotton industry is 90,666, of whom 3,149 are cotton-cleaners, 15,036 are cotton-spinners and 71,080 are cotton-weavers. The work of cleaning cotton, as well as that of spinning, is chiefly done by females, and this accounts for the very high proportion of females returned under these heads.

A large spinning and weaving mill was opened by a company a few years ago in Coimbatore town. The company has an engine of 70 horse-power and carries on work throughout the year. During the year 1894 about 500 adults and 200 children were employed at the mill on wages ranging from Rs. 2 to Rs. 7 per mensem.. During the same year 1,895,528 lb. or about 846 tons of yarn were spun, the number of spindles at work being 16,496.

Silk.

Silk culture and weaving are only carried on in Kollégál, where the climate is favourable both for the worm and the mulberry. The dyes are very good, and the finished goods very effective and handsome; the value of a silk cloth ranges from Rs. 30 to Rs. 500 according to quality, finish and ornamentation. In some cases the cloths are ornamented by the introduction of silver and other embroidery woven into the cloth while still in the loom; such cloths are peculiarly effective, but somewhat costly.

The following interesting account of the silk culture in Kollégál is found in a report on the arts and industries of the Coimbatore district submitted to Government in 1888 by Mr. E. B. Havell, late Superintendent of the Madras School of Arts :—

"*Mode of cultivating the mulberry plants.*—In the rainy season, "immediately after the fall of rain, fields containing black soil or "clay are ploughed four or five times into furrows, and the soil "loosened. On another fall of rain, mulberry cuttings, each one "foot in length, are planted in small pits a yard apart in the same "manner as sugarcanes are planted. Within two days these cut-"tings begin to take root and to sprout. At this time the plan-"tation is weeded and the soil around the plants broken up and "fresh earth mixed therewith. At the end of four months the "plants grow to perfection.

"*Rearing of silk-worms.*—One seer of cocoons is usually bought "for one rupee. They are laid in large bamboo trays (resembling "sieves) which are suspended by ropes for eight days out of the "reach of rats and ants. On the ninth day the moths begin to "come out of the cocoons. They are at once removed to another "bamboo tray in which they are kept for one day. Next day the "male moths are taken out and thrown away. Before the evening "of that day female moths lay their eggs and the next day they

Silk.

"are also removed from the trays and thrown away. The trays "are then hung about the roof and covered with thin cloth to pro- "tect the eggs from flies, ants and lizards. On the seventh day "after the eggs are laid, the silk-worms begin to come out. At "this stage the worms are fed with small cuttings of tender leaves "of mulberry plants five times in the day and five times in the "night. Thus they are fed for seven days. On the eighth day "they discontinue feeding and lie down without moving. In this "state they are said to be attacked with fever. On the morning "of the next day they recover and are fed as before with small "cuttings of mulberry leaves. In this way they are fed for four "days. Then they are attacked with fever a second time and "discontinue feeding. Next day they are again fed as usual. "After the lapse of four more days they are attacked with fever "a third time. Next day they recover as usual and are fed with "full-grown mulberry leaves for four days longer, when they are "attacked a fourth time. At the time of the first fever the "worms in one tray are transferred to two trays. On the second "attack the worms in two trays are removed to eight trays, for "the third fever they are removed to sixteen trays and for the "fourth to thirty-two trays. In four days after the fourth attack "the worms grow large and change colour from white to purple. "At this stage they discontinue feeding altogether and are removed "to bamboo tatties called *chendrigai*. Three days afterwards they "begin to spin cocoons. During the process the tatties are exposed "to the morning sun at sunrise for about half an hour and then "hung up to the roof inside the house. In two days more the "cocoons are collected in bamboo baskets; a sufficient number "are laid aside for a fresh propagation and the rest are sub- "jected to a steaming process to kill the chrysalides. The silk is "unwound from the cocoons by putting them in a chatty with "boiling water and a few cleaning nuts (Ponnálangái) and "attaching the ends of two or more cocoons to a light wheel turned "by hand. The cleaning nuts probably serve as a solvent for the "natural gum secreted by the silk-worm for building the walls of "his cocoon together. There does not appear to be any specific "disease prevalent in the taluk among the silk-worms. They are "said to be affected in abnormal seasons of heat or rain, but not "to such an extent as to produce a marked loss in the quantity of "silk."

The following table shows the average price of raw silk per maund during the nine fasli years 1879–1887. The price is said to fluctuate according to the increase or decrease in the importations of China or other silk :—

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OCCUPATIONS.

Silk.

Fasli year.	Average price. RS.
1879–80	130
1880–81	140
1881–82	125
1882–83	120
1883–84	100
1884–85	90
1885–86	110
1886–87	140
1887–88	130

Experiments in silk-growing have been made in Coimbatore town and in the central jail. In the former case, silk was grown and made into jackets, but they were very costly. In the jail there were once several acres of mulberry trees, but these were cut down. It was again tried on a small scale, but in a hot night of May 1881 the whole of the worms died. The silk produced in 1873 was 50 lb., of which 39 lb. was sold at Rs. 6–8–0 per pound, the cost being that of the convict labour. Nothing was proved by these experiments except that silk could be grown, but whether with profit or certainty is not known. The climate being dry and equable and not extremely hot, the district would seem very suitable for silk culture; labour is cheap, the mulberry thrives well, especially if watered occasionally and manured, while six crops of silk could be readily obtained, the crop requiring from egg to reeling only fifty-seven days. It is believed that the sudden death in the jail referred to above, was due to the room having been shut up all night, so that the delicate worms were stifled.

According to the census returns of 1891, the silk industry supports 636 persons; of these 429 are silk weavers and dealers and 170 are silk carders and spinners.

Fibres.

The sunn hemp (*Crotalaria juncea*) is largely grown in some of the northern villages of Erode and in the southern villages of Bhavâni, and woven into excellent gunny, which took a first prize at Madras in 1883. A demand would be met by growth and supply to an indefinite extent, as it is easily and cheaply grown and cleaned. The mode of preparation differs from that of other fibres in one particular especially, the plant being pulled up by the roots and not cut. After the seeds are beaten out, the stems are immersed in running water for five days or more, and the fibres are then separated by the fingers; this process makes it somewhat expensive to prepare.

Pulimanji (*Hibiscus cannabinus*) is grown everywhere in gardens and on dry lands, but especially in red loams and gravels. The fibre is very well spoken of, and is likely to be very useful for

cordage or more especially for paper stuff. It is grown with the greatest ease and abundance, and any quantity could be grown to order. It requires about three months from the time it is sown before it is fit to be pulled up for watering, which operation with the subsequent dressing is similar to that used in the preparation of the sunn fibre.

Fibres.

Other fibres are altogether rural or domestic manufactures, and will be found described in the chapter on Agriculture in the first volume. The only exceptions are the recent introduction of machinery by Messrs. Stanes and Company to clean marul manji (*Sanseviera zeylanica*), and the rope industry at the Karûr Wesleyan Orphanage, where first-class ropes of various fibres and sizes are now made. At Stanes' factory 8,888 lb. of raw fibre were cleaned in 1894, and the value of the outturn was estimated at Rs. 2,220.

According to the census statistics 2,531 persons are supported by the jute, flax, coir and other fibre industries. Of these 1,276 are coir preparers, manufacturers and sellers, and 1,050 are sacking, tarpaulin and gunny makers and sellers. There are besides 114 hemp rope makers and sellers, 53 net makers and sellers, and 38 flax spinners, weavers and sellers.

Basket-weaving.

There are 7,221 basket-weavers and winnowing-pan makers and sellers. These are mostly Koravas, of whom there are 12,417 in the district. They also make the ordinary country bamboo mats which are used for drying grain. Bamboo and rattan splitters number 399 and mat makers and sellers 2,362.

Saltpetre.

Saltpetre* is obtained by lixiviation of the alkaline soils during the hot weather in shallow mud pans; it is then concentrated by boiling in large pans, the produce being impure saltpetre of the first boiling suitable for manure. For a better sort a second boiling is required, and even a third when it is required very pure, as for gunpowder. A by-product is earth-salt. There are 3,224 persons in the district who derive their livelihood from the manufacture and sale of saltpetre. The manufacture of crude saltpetre is carried on in more than a thousand factories, while good saltpetre is produced at Messrs. Stanes and Company's factory at Coimbatore as well as in certain other refineries.

Indefinite.

Over 133,000 persons are dependent for their livelihood on general labour, but, as already observed, a large number of these are agricultural labourers. Rice pounders and huskers number 11,552 and mendicants 14,748. Of the former only 2,352 are

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* See also chapter XII.

CHAP. VIII. OCCUPATIONS. — Indefinite.

males. The occupation is almost invariably left to women, and the majority of the males are children dependent upon them. Rice is now largely cleaned by machinery at Kuniyamuttúr, a village near Coimbatore.

Personal services.

The number of domestic servants is not large. There are, for example, 1,356 cooks, while the number of inhabited houses is 424,564. The number of cooks who actually do the work is indeed much less, for the above figure includes not only those who serve in the kitchen, but all those who are dependent on them. It will thus be seen how very few houses have a hired servant to do their cooking. The number of other in-door servants is 3,232, and of these 2,201 are females. Grooms, coachmen and dog-boys number 2,691 and door-keepers 333.

Coming next to services rendered to a number of houses by the same individual, we have first the washermen, of whom there are 28,896. The barbers (20,224) are the only other important servants of this class.

The professional classes.

There are 40,172 persons who depend for their livelihood on professions. Of these 13,930 are priests, 3,600 are engaged in subsidiary religious services, 6,756 subsist by teaching and 1,647 do clerical work. Lawyers and their gumastahs number 1,003, and medical practitioners, including the common country doctor or 'vaidyan' as he is generally called, 2,046. There are 78 individuals who earn their livelihood by midwifery. Of astrologers the district has 1,364, most of whom are Pancháiigi Bráhmans who officiate as priests at the ceremonies performed by other caste Hindus. Music, acting and dancing afford subsistence to 7,577 persons.

Commerce.

Commerce, including the transport and storage of materials, supports 36,855 individuals. Persons engaged solely in commercial transactions, however, number only 16,470; of these 34 are bankers, 1,708 are money-lenders and 4,659 are general merchants. Of the remainder 11,078 are cart owners and drivers, 2,077 are railway pointsmen and shunters and 2,555 porters (general).

Administration.

Persons engaged in the public service number 34,671, but of these nearly 21,000 are village servants. Of the remainder 7,232 are police constables, messengers and menials and 5,146 clerks and office superintendents, sub-registrars and police and excise inspectors.

Taluk statistics.

The subjoined table shows for each taluk and town the numbers subsisting by the principal groups of occupations. The system of classification differed slightly from that adopted for the Imperial census tables, but the discrepancies between the two sets of figures are not great:—

CHAP. VII.
OCCUPATIONS.
Taluk statistics.

Statement showing the Occupations of the people.

Taluk.	Agriculturists.		Other labourers.	Traders.	Artisans.		Others.	Total.
	Landholders.	Labourers.			Weavers.	Other artisans.		
Bhaváni ... Town	2,111	341	453	1,276	887	859	1,414	7,341
Bhaváni ... Taluk	63,518	8,895	14,219	7,173	2,919	9,357	6,447	112,528
Total, Bhaváni Taluk ...	**65,629**	**9,236**	**14,672**	**8,449**	**3,806**	**10,216**	**7,861**	**119,869**
Coimbatore ... Municipality ...	4,169	1,821	4,100	10,826	5,954	4,834	14,679	46,383
Coimbatore ... Taluk	119,332	41,743	22,070	25,224	8,466	22,633	21,343	260,811
Total, Coimbatore Taluk ...	**123,501**	**43,564**	**26,170**	**36,050**	**14,420**	**27,467**	**36,022**	**307,194**
Dhárápuram ... Town	1,233	272	510	2,370	308	1,057	1,930	7,680
Dhárápuram ... Taluk	113,515	19,728	21,208	23,546	9,458	32,771	21,315	241,541
Total, Dhárápuram Taluk ...	**114,748**	**20,000**	**21,718**	**25,916**	**9,766**	**33,828**	**23,245**	**249,221**
Erode ... ... Municipality ...	2,714	752	1,215	2,563	221	1,139	3,726	12,330
Erode ... ... Taluk	128,883	9,151	20,254	25,695	9,360	23,760	17,575	234,678
Total, Erode Taluk ...	**131,597**	**9,903**	**21,469**	**28,258**	**9,581**	**24,899**	**21,301**	**247,008**
Karúr ... ... Municipality ...	891	271	1,031	3,015	315	1,240	3,987	10,750
Karúr ... ... Taluk	104,351	24,909	12,320	16,904	8,559	19,795	14,206	201,044
Total, Karúr Taluk ...	**105,242**	**25,180**	**13,351**	**19,919**	**8,874**	**21,035**	**18,193**	**211,794**

Statement showing the Occupations of the people—cont.

Taluk.	Agriculturists.		Other labourers.	Traders.	Artisans.		Others.	Total.
	Landholders.	Labourers.			Weavers.	Other artisans.		
Kollégál ... Town	2,187	358	1,030	1,364	3,042	584	1,381	**9,946**
Kollégál ... Taluk	52,522	7,957	5,854	3,775	1,264	3,227	3,988	**78,587**
TOTAL, KOLLÉGÁL TALUK ...	**54,709**	**8,315**	**6,884**	**5,139**	**4,306**	**3,811**	**5,369**	**88,533**
Palladam Taluk	116,786	25,489	16,306	27,760	16,885	42,643	24,521	**270,390**
Polláchi ... Town	709	71	646	1,879	13	865	1,622	**5,805**
Polláchi ... Taluk	66,571	39,357	11,190	18,877	8,237	18,837	14,795	**177,864**
TOTAL, POLLÁCHI TALUK ...	**67,280**	**39,428**	**11,836**	**20,756**	**8,250**	**19,702**	**16,417**	**183,669**
Satyamangalam Taluk	83,307	26,891	13,738	20,581	7,954	16,478	15,156	**184,105**
Udamalpet ... Town	1,847	1,034	1,153	2,519	229	1,671	1,515	**9,968**
Udamalpet ... Taluk	51,256	25,552	12,346	12,250	4,283	16,568	10,833	**133,088**
TOTAL, UDAMALPET TALUK ...	**53,103**	**26,586**	**13,499**	**14,769**	**4,512**	**18,239**	**12,348**	**143,056**
Grand Total ...	**915,902**	**234,592**	**159,643**	**207,597**	**88,354**	**218,318**	**180,433**	**2,004,839**

CHAP. VIII. TRADE.

Statistics of land trade are compiled, not for separate districts, but for blocks or groups of districts, and it is, therefore, impossible to give any information regarding the volume of the exports and imports of Coimbatore.

There is very considerable cart trade, especially in the southern taluks, which are unprovided with a railway, and largely produce articles of export, such as cotton, oil seeds, &c., while they receive in return cloths, salt and the like from the districts to the south and west. In seven months in the year 1892–93 no less than 606,414 maunds of merchandise, 37,680 animals and 76,534 passengers, were registered at the three road-traffic stations of Dhárápuram, Polláchi and Udamalpet.

The tolls at Polláchi average about Rs. 17,000 per annum, and are levied only on traffic passing on the eastern and western roads, and not on the roads to and from Coimbatore and Palladam. Allowing for establishment and profits, it is evident that at two annas per cart there is considerable traffic. The business done at the numerous markets and the good prices obtained for farming the moderate fees, show that there is a brisk interchange of rural produce for cash, salt or foreign goods.

The chief articles of trade are as follows:—*Exports*—cereals and pulses, chillies, turmeric and spices, cotton, oil seeds, tobacco, ghee, sandalwood, plantains, jaggery, brass and copper vessels, cattle and leather. *Imports*—timber, paddy, salt, salt-fish, piece-goods and twist, metals and metal goods, cocoanut oil and spices.

Local trade deals in all sorts of agricultural produce, jaggery, sugar, iron, cloth and country blankets, oil, &c. Cotton goes chiefly to Madras from the northern táluks, and to Tinnevelly from the southern; the latter principally by cart, of which thousands arrive at Udamalpet in the season; the West Coast is almost entirely supplied with tobacco and jaggery from this district; the other produce goes chiefly to the neighbouring districts, though Bangalore merchants buy paddy and gram largely. Gingelly oil goes southward and to Madras, while nearly all the groundnut of Karúr goes in bulk to Pondicherry. Timber is exported to some extent, but Palghat timber is preferred for important work; the Bombay trade in Ánaimalai teak is still carried on, but not to the same extent as formerly.

The ghee trade with Mysore, now worth about a lakh of rupees, appears to have also fallen off since the time when former Collectors spoke of it as important; this is probably due to the larger consumption in this district, and may be also a mere relative decrease, since in those days traffic was small and only expensive products bore transit along the tracks that were called roads, and on the pack bullocks that were the sole means of transport. Leather is made and exported in considerable quantities, chiefly sheep and goat skins, which are sent to the English market.

CHAPTER IX.

AGRICULTURAL STATISTICS.

CHAP. IX. THE LAND.

THE total area of the district is 5,030,420 acres, and this is distributed as shown below:—

	ACRES.
Government lands	4,586,470
Minor inám	286,654
Whole inám	50,416
Zemindári	106,880
TOTAL ..	5,030,420

Zemindári lands are estates on which the land-tax has been fixed in perpetuity. Inám lands are those which pay either no assessment at all or a rate lower than the full assessment. These usually consist of fields situated in ordinary ryotwári villages, and in that case they are called minor ináms. But sometimes a whole village is held on this favourable tenure; such a village is called a whole inám or, more commonly, a shrotriem village.

The figure given above as the area of Government lands is that ascertained by professional survey, but the area entered in the village papers is only 4,473,275 acres. The difference is due to the exclusion from the latter of unsurveyed mountainous tracts. In the following remarks the latter figure is adopted, as the statistics are all based on the village returns.

Extent per head.

Of the total area of Government land, 1,195,031 acres, or 26·72 per cent., are under forest and 533,374 acres, or 11·92 per cent., are not available for cultivation. The latter consists of land which is unfit for cultivation, or which is occupied by roads, village sites and the like. The area available for cultivation is thus 2,744,870 acres, and of this extent 2,396,573 acres are occupied and 348,297 acres are still available for the extension of cultivation. All the minor inám lands are, of course, occupied and culturable; their area is 286,654 acres. The total extent of arable land in Government villages is thus 3,031,524 acres. The population of these villages is 1,931,025, so that on an average there are 1·57 acres of culturable land for each inhabitant but the extent

CHAP. IX. THE LAND

Extent per head.

actually cultivated is only 1·09 acres. The real ratio of cultivated land to population is, however, greater than this, for some of the land is cropped more than once. If allowance be made for this[1] the proportion of cultivated land to each inhabitant is 1·21 acres. It is not possible to give the extent of uncultivated land which is ordinarily capable of yielding two crops in a year, but it may be assumed that it is very small, as such good land would be left waste only in very exceptional circumstances. Leaving this out of consideration and including only the land actually cropped more than once, the extent of culturable land to each inhabitant is 1·70 acres. There is still considerable room for the expansion of cultivation, for in 1892–93 there were 348,297 acres of culturable land available for any who chose to apply for it. Much of this is, no doubt, of very inferior quality, necessitating a considerable outlay in preparing and clearing it, but this is the case with unoccupied land in all countries.

As the question of the pressure of population on the land is of great importance, detailed statistics for each taluk are given below. The acreage figures are for the year 1892–93, but the population statistics are necessarily those of the census of 1891 :—

Statement showing the pressure of the population on the land.

Taluk.	Population of Government villages.	Number of acres per inhabitant.*		Number of acres per inhabitant.†	
		Arable land.	Cultivated land.	Arable land.	Cultivated land.
Bhaváni	119,869	1·34	1·14	1·43	1·23
Coimbatore	299,843	1·08	0·86	1·17	0·94
Dhárápuram	249,221	1·94	1·22	2·07	1·35
Erode	247,008	1·30	1·08	1·40	1·18
Karúr	198,029	1·61	1·10	1·68	1·18
Kollégál	83,316	3·66	0·91	3·82	1·08
Palladam	270,390	1·57	1·19	1·75	1·37
Polláchi	148,690	1·52	1·30	1·76	1·54
Satyamangalam	184,105	1·49	1·13	1·56	1·20
Udamalpet	130,554	1·47	0·76	1·61	0·91
TOTAL ...	**1,931,025**	**1·57**	**1·09**	**1·70**	**1·21**

* Exclusive of the extent cropped more than once.

† Inclusive of the extent cropped more than once.

[1] It is not possible, however, to make full allowance, as there are no statistics available showing the area of garden land cropped twice in a year. Such lands are classed as dry in the accounts, as the water for their irrigation is drawn from private wells and not from Government works.

CHAP. IX. THE LAND.

Extent per head.

The area of cultivated land to each inhabitant varies a good deal in the different taluks, ranging from 0·91 of an acre in Udamalpet and 0·94 of an acre in Coimbatore to 1·54 acres in Pollâchi. The pressure in Kollégál seems to be second only to Coimbatore. Erode, Karúr and Satyamangalam follow close and Bhavâni comes next with 1·23 acres. The high pressure in Coimbatore is evidently due to the large urban population who depend chiefly on other avocations than agriculture.

As already stated, the unoccupied area available for the extension of cultivation is about 350,000 acres, but over three-fifths of this extent is in Kollégál, while the bulk of the remainder is in Satyamangalam. In the other taluks there is very little room for expansion, and the needs of the increasing population will have to be met by improvements in production or the standard of living must fall. It is possible, however, that the growth of population will be checked by emigration as has been the case in Tanjore.

Statistics similar to those given above are not available for zemindáris and whole inám villages, but taken as a whole their circumstances probably do not differ materially from those of the rest of the district.

Ryotwári holdings.

Turning next to the purely ryotwári land, the best statistics available are those for the *fasli* or agricultural year. The bulk of the ryotwári land is held on pattá, but a comparatively small extent is sometimes taken up for cultivation late in the season without any formal application for it. During the five years ending with fasli 1302, the average extent of land held by ryots on pattá was 2,367,000 acres. Of this extent about 87,000 acres, or 3·68 per cent., were wet or irrigated lands, while the rest were either unirrigated or irrigated from wells or other works which the ryots had themselves constructed in lands classed as dry in the settlement accounts. The area of such 'garden' lands as they are called was over 250,000 acres in 1892–93.

Ryotwári Holdings.

Year.	Holdings.			Pattás.	Average area per pattá.
	Dry.	Wet.	Total.		
	ACS.	ACS.	ACS.	NO.	ACS.
1888–89	2,262,315	86,309	**2,348,624**	211,127	11·12
1889–90	2,278,211	86,487	**2,364,698**	213,396	11·08
1890–91	2,281,055	87,019	**2,368,074**	214,744	11·03
1891–92	2,286,326	87,101	**2,373,427**	215,421	11·02
1892–93	2,294,344	87,200	**2,381,544**	217,812	10·93
AVERAGE ...	**2,280,450**	**86,823**	**2,367,273**	**214,500**	**11·04**

CHAP. IX. THE LAND.

Ryotwári holdings.

The extent of holdings shows a steady increase, but the area actually cultivated in the last two years exhibits a considerable falling off. This decline is due to the unfavourable character of the seasons which led ryots to let their dry lands lie waste.

The size of farms.

Every holder of ryotwári land is given a document, called a pattá, setting forth the land held severally by him in that village and the assessment payable on it. If a ryot holds some land separately and other land jointly with other persons, a separate pattá would be issued for the first and another, called a joint pattá, for the second; in the latter the names of all the joint holders would appear. Statistics of these two classes of pattás are given in the following table :—

Statement showing the Rent-roll of Coimbatore for fasli 1302.

—	Single pattás.	Joint pattás.	Number of registered holders of joint pattás.
	NO.	NO.	NO.
Pattás under Rs. 10	65,745	71,092	235,610
Do. between ,, 10 and Rs. 30 ...	21,592	41,328	161,695
Do. ,, ,, 30 ,, ,, 50 ...	3,554	7,409	35,595
Do. ,, ,, 50 ,, ,, 100 ...	1,826	3,569	18,239
Do. ,, ,, 100 ,, ,, 250 ...	591	880	4,828
Do. ,, ,, 250 ,, ,, 500 ...	100	85	370
Do. ,, ,, 500 ,, ,, 1,000 ...	20	13	101
Do. for ,, 1,000 and upwards ...	1	7	68
TOTAL NUMBER OF PATTÁS ...	93,429	124,383	456,506

It is frequently assumed that each pattá denotes a separate farm and the average area per pattá is taken to be equivalent to the average size of a farm. This, however, is by no means the case, for (1) a man may hold land in more than one village, (2) he may have a share in one or more joint pattás, or (3) he may also hold inám land. Inquiries were recently made by the present editor in a few villages in the Nellore district into the circumstances of all holders of pattás on which the assessment was below Rs. 10, with the result that a large majority of such pattádárs

CHAP. IX. THE LAND.

The size of farms.

were found to hold lands on which the aggregate assessment was well over Rs. 10 per annum. Of the small residue some were shopkeepers, who held a bit of land on which they grew vegetables or fruit trees; others were labourers, whose holdings were of the nature of allotments; none were farmers in the proper sense of the term.

The enormous number of pattás for lands on which the assessment is less than Rs. 10 must not, therefore, be taken to show that a similar proportion of ryots have such small holdings.

The average size of a farm is of course small, but that is a necessary incident of the peasant proprietary system.

According to the census statistics of occupation, farmers and their families form nearly 40 per cent. of the total population, and applying this percentage to the inhabitants of Government villages, we arrive at 765,567 as the number of farmers and those depending on them among the latter. The area of occupied land, ryotwári and inám, in these villages is 2,683,227. Now there are on an average 4·72 persons to each inhabited house, and allowing for some houses that contain more than one family, we may take it that the ordinary family consists of 4·5 individuals. This would give us an average of 15·8 acres to each farmer's family. It is probable, however, that some members of farmers' families have been shown as land-owners, while others, chiefly children, appear as herd-boys, gatherers of fuel, &c. Adding 20 per cent. for this error, we get 12·6 acres as the average farm. This figure is high when compared with many districts, the average for North Arcot, for example, being only 6·9 acres, but there the proportion of wet land is very much greater than in Coimbatore.

Cultivation of ryotwári land.

The average extent of ryotwári land cultivated during the five years ending with 1892–93 is 1,929,887 acres, or 81·52 per cent. of the average holdings; 18·41 per cent. was either left fallow or remained uncultivated owing to neglect on the part of the ryots. Only 0·07 per cent. was left waste, to use the technical expression, owing to causes beyond the occupant's control and the assessment on this was remitted. In the case of dry land 81·00 per cent. was cultivated and 19·00 per cent. was either treated as fallow or left waste owing to neglect. Of the wet land 95·29 per cent. was cultivated and 2·96 per cent. was allowed to remain uncultivated; the remaining 1·75 per cent. was left waste owing to failure of the season, and the assessment on this was, therefore, not charged.

The area actually cropped was appreciably larger in the first two years of the quinquennium than in any of the others; this was due to the failure of timely rains during faslis 1301 and 1302.

Cultivation of ryotwári land.

Cultivation of Ryotwári Land.

Fasli.	Dry.				Wet.				Total.			
	Occupied.	Cultivated.	Waste charged.	Waste remitted.	Occupied.	Cultivated.	Waste charged.	Waste remitted.	Occupied.	Cultivated.	Waste charged.	Waste remitted.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
	ACRES.	ACRES.	ACRES.	ACRES.	ACRES.	ACRES.	ACRES.	ACRES.	ACRES.	ACRES.	ACRES.	ACRES.
1298 ...	2,262,315	1,869,484	392,831	...	86,309	82,062	2,663	1,584	2,348,624	1,951,546	395,494	1,584
1299 ...	2,278,211	1,889,153	389,058	...	86,487	83,587	2,254	646	2,364,698	1,972,740	391,312	646
1300 ...	2,281,055	1,861,550	419,505	...	87,019	81,760	2,149	3,110	2,368,074	1,943,310	421,654	3,110
1301 ...	2,286,326	1,854,066	432,260	...	87,101	84,366	2,043	692	2,373,427	1,938,432	434,303	692
1302 ...	2,294,344	1,761,515	532,829	...	87,200	81,894	3,752	1,554	2,381,544	1,843,409	536,581	1,554
AVERAGE...	**2,280,450**	**1,847,153**	**433,297**	...	**86,823**	**82,734**	**2,572**	**1,517**	**2,367,273**	**1,929,887**	**435,869**	**1,517**

Crops.

The subjoined statement shows, for each of the five years ending 31st March 1893, the acreage under each kind of crop grown on ryotwári and minor inám lands. In the case of lands cropped more than once in a year, their extent is taken into account for each crop. The area cropped will, therefore, exceed the area shown as cultivated :—

Statement showing the acreage under each kind of crop.

—	1888–89.	1889–90.	1890–91.	1891–92.	1892–93.	Average.
Cereals.	ACRES.	ACRES.	ACRES.	ACRES.	ACRES.	ACRES.
Rice (*Oryza sativa*)	93,153	97,612	91,305	98,096	85,709	**93,175**
Cholum (*Sorghum vulgare*)	695,415	677,182	737,654	720,263	707,696	**707,642**
Cumbu (*Pennisetum typhoideum*)	594,516	627,716	606,770	573,045	635,567	**607,523**
Ragi (*Eleusine coracana*)	249,548	212,157	198,982	169,008	178,210	**201,581**
Varagu (*Paspalum scrobiculatum*)	5,394	4,410	4,310	3,103	6,798	**4,803**
Sámai (*Panicum miliare*)	77,940	85,274	78,495	85,243	83,727	**82,136**
Wheat (*Triticum sativum*)	2,594	2,535	2,460	2,670	1,533	**2,358**
Korra (*Setaria italica*)	34,142	59,282	40,755	54,463	21,254	**41,979**
Others	9,810	5,804	615	292	1,124	**3,529**
TOTAL ...	**1,762,512**	**1,771,972**	**1,761,346**	**1,706,183**	**1,721,618**	**1,744,726**
Pulses.						
Bengal-gram (*Cicer arietinum*)	8,799	9,537	12,940	13,256	9,621	**10,831**
Dholl (*Cajanus indicus*)	6,768	11,363	8,982	6,971	9,844	**8,786**
Horse-gram (*Dolichos biflorus*)	201,474	184,354	178,691	247,415	161,953	**194,777**
Green-gram (*Phaseolus mungo*)	5,534	3,041	5,332	4,807	4,723	**4,687**
Black-gram (*Phaseolus mungo, var. radiatus*) ...	15,861	16,005	10,691	11,850	5,382	**11,958**
Others	12,008	24,419	29,030	27,699	24,452	**23,522**
TOTAL ...	**250,444**	**248,719**	**245,666**	**311,998**	**215,975**	**254,561**

Statement showing the acreage under each kind of crop—cont.

—	1888–89.	1889–90.	1890–91.	1891–92.	1892–93.	Average.
	ACRES.	ACRES.	ACRES.	ACRES.	ACRES.	ACRES.
Orchard and Garden Produce.						
Plantains (*Musa sapientum*)	5,657	5,310	4,933	4,683	4,089	**4,934**
Vegetables (including starches)	2,466	1,770	1,620	3,837	3,260	**2,591**
Mangoes (*Mangifera indica*)	72	76	82	148	166	**109**
Cocoanuts (*Cocos nucifera*)	3,246	3,959	3,981	3,925	5,307	**4,084**
Topes (various)	497	421	2,016	...	83	**603**
Others	3,030	5,746	7,167	14,105	7,514	**7,518**
TOTAL ..	**14,968**	**17,282**	**19,829**	**26,698**	**20,419**	**19,839**
Drugs and Narcotics.						
Tobacco (*Nicotiana tabacum*)	16,054	23,683	13,945	18,408	23,855	**19,189**
Others	756	787	2,913	2,346	1,072	**1,575**
TOTAL ...	**16,810**	**24,470**	**16,858**	**20,754**	**24,927**	**20,764**
Condiments and Spices.						
Chillies (*Capsicum frutescens*)	15,322	15,768	15,044	13,648	15,027	**14,962**
Onions (*Allium cepa*)	2,246	2,306	1,374	2,443	2,716	**2,217**
Coriander seeds (*Coriandrum sativum*)	3,121	3,121	1,663	966	1,574	**2,089**
Betel-leaves (*Piper betle*)	2,006	1,386	1,942	1,641	1,745	**1,744**
Others	1,234	1,842	3,087	1,621	3,149	**2,186**
TOTAL ...	**23,929**	**24,423**	**23,110**	**20,319**	**24,211**	**23,198**

Statement showing the acreage under each kind of crop—cont.

——	1888-89.	1889-90.	1890-91.	1891-92.	1892-93.	Average.
Sugar.	ACRES.	ACRES.	ACRES.	ACRES.	ACRES.	ACRES.
Cane (*Saccharum officinarum*)	5,362	5,652	5,156	3,934	4,697	**4,960**
Palmyra (*Borassus flabelliformis*)	464	363	557	402	457	**449**
Others	15	11	41	78	...	**29**
TOTAL ...	**5,841**	**6,026**	**5,754**	**4,414**	**5,154**	**5,438**
Oils and Seeds.						
Gingelly (*Sesamum indicum*)	61,177	99,051	97,185	37,049	64,601	**71,812**
Lamp and castor oils (*Ricinus communis*)	33,215	38,725	43,076	31,833	45,765	**38,523**
Others	276	705	1,560	757	720	**804**
TOTAL ...	**94,668**	**138,481**	**141,821**	**69,639**	**111,086**	**111,139**
Dyes (not forest).						
Indigo (*Indigofera tinctoria*)	30	...	13	...	3	**9**
Others	...	...	145	...	...	**29**
TOTAL ...	**30**	...	**158**	...	**3**	**38**
Fibres.						
Cotton (*Gossypium indicum*)...	248,469	245,960	256,129	237,554	195,144	**236,651**
Others	411	252	210	241	330	**289**
TOTAL ...	**248,880**	**246,212**	**256,339**	**237,795**	**195,474**	**236,940**
Pasture and fodder crops	...	...	...	...	**23,005**	**4,601**
Grand Total ...	**2,418,082**	**2,477,585**	**2,470,881**	**2,397,800**	**2,341,872**	**2,421,244**

Cholum is much the largest crop: it occupies nearly a third of the total acreage, and is grown in every part of the district, but in Polláchi it covers more than half the area of the taluk and in Udamalpet about one-half. Next to cholum come cumbu, ragi, horse-gram and rice. These like cholum are grown throughout the district, but the proportion of rice is higher in Satyamangalam and Udamalpet than in other parts. In 1892–93 the rains were so unfavourable that there was a great decline in the acreage under rice and an increase in the extent under cumbu and varagu. Of special crops, the most important is cotton, the normal acreage under it being from 195,000 to 256,000 acres. Erode has the largest extent under this crop. Next in importance to cotton are oil-seeds, which are grown in nearly every part of the district. Indigo has practically died out, the extent under it being only 3 acres. The area under sugar-cane is about 5,000 acres, and Udamalpet and Coimbatore have the largest acreage. The area under tobacco is about 19,000 acres; the leaf is grown chiefly in Coimbatore, Dhárápuram and Karúr, and a great deal of it is exported to Malabar and North Arcot. That which is sent to Malabar is cured by the cultivators themselves and sold to local dealers, who export it; but that which goes to North Arcot is bought as it stands on the ground by Muhammadan dealers from Gudiyáttam, who cure it in a manner of their own. Wheat is grown in Coimbatore and coffee in Coimbatore, Satyamangalam and Kollégál.

CHAP. IX. THE LAND. Crops.

LAND REVENUE.

The total land revenue of the district is in ordinarily good years about $28\frac{1}{4}$ lakhs of rupees. Of this sum 27·93 lakhs constitute the assessment payable on ryotwári holdings, Rs. 28,000 represent the peshkash or revenue payable by the permanently-settled estates, while the rest is the revenue derived from shrotriems or ináms. The subjoined statement shows the land revenue demand for a series of years:—

Fasli year.	Land revenue.	Fasli year.	Land revenue.	Fasli year.	Land revenue.
	RS.		RS.		RS.
1288 ...	26,73,767	1293 ...	27,48,368	1298 ...	28,07,152
1289 ...	24,52,226	1294 ...	26,68,326	1299 ...	28,34,733
1290 ...	26,54,249	1295 ...	27,55,954	1300 ...	27,84,669
1291 ...	24,93,947	1296 ...	27,70,986	1301 ...	28,24,139
1292 ...	27,00,125	1297 ...	27,78,334	1302 ...	28,07,142
AVERAGE.	**25,94,863**	AVERAGE.	**27,44,394**	AVERAGE.	**28,11,567**

The average assessment in the last year of the series was As. 14–10 per acre for dry and Rs. 7–6–4 per acre for wet lands,

CHAP. IX.
LAND REVENUE.

Collection of the revenue.

the corresponding figures for the presidency as a whole being Rs. 1-0-5 and Rs. 5-0-5 respectively.

The foregoing statistics do not include the cesses levied on land for various purposes. These amount to about Rs. 3,93,000 per annum, and are collected from the ryots simultaneously with the land assessment. The land revenue of the district is realised in four equal instalments in January, February, March and April. These instalments are known in official language as the *kistbandi*. The total demand including the cesses comes to over 32 lakhs of rupees, and the following statement gives the gross demand and collections for each of the last five years. The cesses have not been separated from land revenue proper, as in the statistics of collection furnished to the Board no distinction is made between them :—

Fasli year.	Demand.	Collected within the year.	Balance uncollected within the year.	Arrears of previous years collected within the year.
	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.
1298 ...	31,03,560	30,84,411	19,149	49,572
1299 ...	32,28,810	32,03,130	25,680	21,162
1300 ...	31,76,448	31,15,171	61,277	24,500
1301 ...	32,17,685	31,13,961	1,03,724	59,660
1302 ...	32,02,007	30,38,919	1,63,088	1,01,377

The balance remaining uncollected at the end of the last fasli was Rs. 1,63,000, but of this amount Rs. 1,21,000 were subsequently realised.

Remissions.

Statistics of remissions granted in each of the past ten years are given on the margin. The assessment remitted for failure of crop is distinguished from that granted because the lands were not cultivated. The average amount remitted comes to about Rs 26,500 per annum, or less than one per cent. of the gross revenue. The remissions included in this statement are known as occasional remissions. The other so-called remissions consist chiefly of payments, direct from the revenue, towards the support of religious institutions and to the Village Service Fund. The former class of payments comes to about Rs. 52,995 per

Fasli year.	Remission.		
	For waste.	For failure of crop.	Total.
	RS.	RS.	RS.
1293	5,289	10,559	**15,848**
1294	6,384	17,821	**24,205**
1295	1,538	5,295	**6,833**
1296	1,526	14,958	**16,484**
1297	10,031	20,085	**30,116**
1298	10,109	25,658	**35,767**
1299	3,809	12,279	**16,088**
1300	19,048	36,854	**55,902**
1301	3,784	15,508	**19,292**
1302	9,532	35,098	**44,630**

annum, while the annual contribution * to the Village Service Fund is about Rs. 1,49,000.

CHAP. IX. LAND REVENUE.

Taluk revenue.

The following table shows the normal land revenue of each taluk. The figures are for the fasli year 1301, and include the assessment on ryotwári lands as well as the quit-rents of ináms and the peshkash of permanently-settled estates :—

Land Revenue Demand of each Taluk for fasli 1301.

Taluk.	Land revenue.	Cesses.	Total.
	RS.	RS.	RS.
Bhaváni	1,10,625	17,406	1,28,031
Coimbatore	3,45,609	47,595	3,93,204
Dhárápuram	3,68,275	51,990	4,20,265
Erode	4,05,697	56,314	4,62,011
Karúr	2,93,004	41,326	3,34,330
Kollégál	79,439	12,206	91,645
Palladam	3,98,524	55,598	4,54,122
Polláchi	2,55,448	34,629	2,90,077
Satyamangalam	3,51,333	46,345	3,97,678
Udamalpet	2,14,301	30,137	2,44,438
Huzúr	1,884	...	1,884
TOTAL ...	**28,24,139**	**3,93,546**	**32,17,685**

AGRICULTURAL STOCK.

The subjoined table gives statistics of agricultural stock for a series of years.

Statement showing the Agricultural Stock in Government Villages.

——	1882–83.	1887–88.	1892–93.
Bulls and bullocks	265,406	270,098	337,594
Cows	235,649	296,190	370,464
Male buffaloes	45,425 (Male and Cow buffaloes together)	27,848	6,652
Cow buffaloes		46,051	65,718
Calves and buffalo calves	..	102,591	313,782
Sheep	450,164	752,592 (Sheep and Goats together)	921,909
Goats	261,193		446,314
Horses and ponies	2,965	3,209	4,904
Mules and donkeys	15,870	15,717	16,951
Ploughs	161,283	186,406	209,411
Carts	18,979	22,010	31,961

The system of classification adopted in the later years was different from that followed in 1882–83, so that it is not easy to draw inferences of much value. But taking the figures as they stand, it will be seen that there has been a considerable addition to the ryots' agricultural stock. The increase in the number of sheep and goats, indeed, is so great as to suggest that the earlier returns were inaccurate. The number of calves and buffalo calves in 1892–93 was, according to the above table, thrice as large as that returned in 1887–88, and this enormous increase is

* See also chapter XIV.

CHAP. IX. AGRICULTURAL STOCK.

manifestly impossible within the short period of five years. Much care has been bestowed of late years in the compilation of these returns, and the figures for 1892–93 may be regarded as fairly accurate. According to these, the number of tilling and draught cattle is about 344,000, or a pair to every 15·59 acres occupied in 1892–93. The proportional extent varies from 21·66 acres in Dhárápuram to 8·68 acres in Kollégál. The number of cows and cow-buffaloes gives 23 to every 100 inhabitants. Coimbatore has the lowest proportion, viz., 13. In Palladam the number is 15 and in Udamalpet 16, while in Kollégál it is as high as 49. Sheep and goats are largely kept for manurial purposes, and there are 51 of these animals to every 100 acres occupied. The number varies from 28 in Polláchi and Udamalpet to 75 in Bhaváni. For a description of the different breeds of cattle, sheep and goats the reader is referred to volume I, chapter V. The price of a pair of bullocks varies from Rs. 50 to Rs. 200, but Rs. 75 may be taken as the average. The Kángayam, Bargúr and Álambádi breeds are well known, and the price of a pair of bullocks of these strains varies from Rs. 100 to Rs. 250. The best bullocks are brought for sale to all the large cattle fairs in the district; these are generally held in connection with the annual festivals at Kángayam, Tiruppúr, Avanási and other places. The average price of a sheep is Rs. 3, while goats can be got for a little less. Goats and sheep are used to a considerable extent for food, and the milk of goats is much appreciated for its medicinal quality. There is one plough to every 12·81 acres and one cart to every 83·95 acres in occupation.

Cattle mortality.

The statistics of mortality among cattle are given on the margin, and a more detailed statement is appended to the chapter. These figures do not include deaths from old age and accidents, the registration of which is very imperfect. The principal diseases are anthrax, rinderpest and dysentery. There is also a considerable mortality from snake-bite and wild animals. In order to keep down the ravages of wild beasts, the Government gives rewards for the destruction of those dangerous to men and cattle. The following statement shows the number of animals killed and rewards paid during recent years. No rewards are given for the destruction of snakes:—

Year.	Deaths.	
	Cattle.	Sheep and goats.
1888–89	5,175	1,929
1889–90	6,189	3,890
1890–91	7,558	3,256
1891–92	5,846	1,963
1892–93	5,083	3,393

Statement of rewards paid for the destruction of wild animals in the Coimbatore District.

Wild animals destroyed.	1888.		1889.		1890.		1891.		1892.	
	Number of animals.	Amount of reward.	Number of animals.	Amount of reward.	Number of animals.	Amount of reward.	Number of animals.	Amount of reward.	Number of animals.	Amount of reward.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
		RS. A. P.		RS. A. P.		RS. A. P.		RS. A. P.		RS. A. P.
Panthers and leopards	50	1,250 0 0	38	950 0 0	34	640 0 0	28	345 0 0	28	502 0 0
Bears	15	75 0 0	11	55 0 0	6	20 0 0	...	...	...	...
Tigers	15	525 0 0	15	525 0 0	8	255 0 0	10	227 8 0	14	388 8 0
Hyænas	14	42 0 0	12	36 0 0	2	6 0 0	...	...	...	...
TOTAL ...	**94**	**1,892 0 0**	**76**	**1,566 0 0**	**50**	**921 0 0**	**38**	**572 8 0**	**42**	**890 8 0**

Cattle mortality.

Statistics of Mortality among Cattle, Sheep and Goats reported in the District of Coimbatore during the years 1888–89 *to* 1892–93.

Causes of death.	1888–89.		1889–90.		1890–91.		1891–92.		1892–93.	
	Cattle.	Sheep and goats.	Cattle.	Sheep and goats.	Cattle.	Sheep and goats.	Cattle.	Sheep and goats.	Cattle.	Sheep and goats.
TOTAL STOCK ...	**1,183,900**	**1,255,800**	**1,183,900**	**1,255,800**	**1,300,200**	**1,364,000**	**1,233,900**	**1,363,956**	**1,106,300**	**1,383,200**
Deaths from diseases—										
Rinderpest	1,370	...	890	39	408	82	533	71	192	60
Diarrhœa and dysentery	602	...	1,560	168	3,033	401	1,663	311	731	170
Anthrax	414	...	309	157	246	124	264	49	329	244
Epizootic aphtha	591	...	187	70	350	129	242	41	266	20
Variola	322	...	587	114	206	136	300	206	255	186
All other diseases	1,356	...	1,727	1,890	2,473	1,399	2,140	692	2,418	2,059
TOTAL NUMBER OF DEATHS DUE TO DISEASE ...	**4,655**	**1,188**	**5,260**	**2,438**	**6,716**	**2,271**	**5,142**	**1,370**	**4,191**	**2,739**
RATE PER MILLE ...	**4**	**1**	**5**	**2**	**5**	**2**	**4**	**1**	**4**	**2**
Deaths due to other causes—										
Snake-bite	67	20	137	41	121	22	83	14	106	23
Wild animals	453	721	792	1,411	711	963	621	579	786	631
Criminal poisoning	...	...	...	...	10	...	...	...	...	...
TOTAL ...	**520**	**741**	**929**	**1,452**	**842**	**985**	**704**	**593**	**892**	**654**
TOTAL NUMBER OF DEATHS FROM ALL CAUSES ...	**5,175**	**1,929**	**6,189**	**3,890**	**7,558**	**3,256**	**5,846**	**1,963**	**5,083**	**3,393**
RATE PER MILLE ...	**4**	**2**	**5**	**3**	**6**	**2**	**5**	**1**	**5**	**2**

CHAP. IX. AGRICULTURAL STOCK.

Pony-breeding.

The breeding of ponies has long been followed by the zemindars and substantial ryots of certain parts of the district, and thanks to the liberal assistance and encouragement given by the Government, the industry is now well established. The indigenous breed had many defects, and in order to introduce better strains, with more bone and substance, the Government in 1870 sent to the district two stallions—a country-bred pony and an Arab. The breeders readily took advantage of their services, but only a comparatively small percentage of the coverings were successful, and as one of the stallions died in 1874, the other was sold and the experiment abandoned. Ten years later Mr. Leman, the then Collector, pointed out that the enterprise had never had a fair trial and urged its revival. The proposal was accepted by the Government and two stallions were sent to the district about the beginning of 1885. One of these animals was entrusted to the Pattagar of Pálaiyakottai, who is himself a large breeder and has always taken a keen interest in the improvement of the local strains. In 1886 covering fees were abolished, and it was ordered that no mare under 12 hands should be served by a Government stallion. In 1887 there were seven stallions at work, and the experiment has been steadily and persistently continued; but although encouragement is given by the offer of handsome prizes at annual shows, and though the harmful effects of the practice of allowing the common country stallions to run free over the village grazing grounds have been mitigated to some extent by encouraging owners to get such animals castrated, the enterprise has not been altogether successful. This is partly due to the fact that small owners will not feed their mares properly, or cannot afford to do so, and many of the mares either do not fill at all or abort. A fair number of useful colts and fillies have, however, been reared, and this cannot fail to have a good effect eventually on the stock of the district. The improvement of a breed of animals is a very long, up-hill process, and success can be obtained only by persistent endeavours carried on over a comparatively long period. This is fully recognised and a comparatively large stud of Government stallions is maintained. These animals are stationed at Kángyam, Erode, Dhárápuram, Aravakurichi, Palladam and Kollegal. Some very good ponies, the produce of the Government stallions, have been exhibited at the annual shows, and for men with sufficient capital to enable them to feed the brood mares and young stock properly, the business is likely to prove a profitable one, and we may look forward with confidence to a vastly improved breed of ponies being obtainable in Coimbatore at no distant date.

CHAP. IX. AGRICULTURAL STOCK. — Pony-breeding.

There have been some attempts at mule-breeding, but they were not attended with success. The experiment is about to be tried again.

CHAPTER X.

IRRIGATION.[1]

THE subjoined statement shows the nature and extent of the different irrigation sources in each taluk of Coimbatore :—

CHAP. X. IRRIGATION. Area irrigated.

Area of Ryotwári and Minor Inám lands irrigated in 1892–93.

Taluks.	Government canals.	Private canals.	Tanks.	Wells.		Other sources.	Total.
	ACS.	ACS.	ACS.	NO.	ACS.	ACS.	ACS.
Bhaváni ...	19	...	1,203	4,084	14,830	657	16,709
Coimbatore ...	9,643	...	675	5,455	26,282	2,533	39,133
Dhárápuram ...	8,201	...	244	10,299	47,319	712	56,476
Erode	11,251	...	478	11,138	33,195	388	45,312
Karúr	18,240	...	880	8,564	24,117	178	43,415
Kollégál ...	1,853	588	4,496	69	69	42	7,048
Palladam ...	2,058	...	1,703	10,382	63,311	9	67,081
Pollàchi ...	4,742	454	493	4,268	13,608	326	19,623
Satyamangalam	17,919	...	113	7,649	22,632	711	41,375
Udamalpet ...	6,029	1,249	1,814	3,553	27,171	9	36,272
TOTAL ...	79,955	2,291	12,099	65,461	272,534	5,565	372,444

The total area of ryotwári and minor inám lands irrigated in 1892–93 was 372,444 acres, or about 14 per cent. of the land cultivated. Of this extent, 272,534 acres, or 73·17 per cent., were irrigated from wells, 79,955 acres, or 21·47 per cent., from Government canals, and 12,099 acres, or 3·25 per cent., from tanks.

Classification and maintenance of irrigation works.

Irrigation works are classed as major and minor; the former, under the Public Works Department, include all channels and tanks irrigating above 200 acres, as well as smaller tanks if in a

[1] In the present section the systems, projects, works, and mode of managing the works will alone be dealt with; for irrigation as applied to agriculture see the chapter on 'Agriculture' in the first volume.

major series or if they command any important work such as a railway; the latter include all tanks below 200 acres, and are at present in charge of the Revenue Department.

Classification and maintenance of irrigation works.

The Public Works Department does not operate upon all major works at a time, but only upon such as its limited establishments and grants can deal with. At present the department charges itself mainly with the clearance and repair of the following channels and tanks:—

Kálingaráyan channel.
Tadappalli do.
Arakkankóttai do.
Pugalúr do.
Vángal do.
Nerúr do.
Kallápuram do.
Kadattúr do.
Kaniyúr do.
Sózhamádévi do.
Kárattozhuvu do.
Kannádipputtúr do.
Kumaralingam do.
Alangiyam do.
Dalavóypatnam do.
Dhárápuram do.
Kolinjivádi do.
Nanjaittalaiyúr do.
Sinna Dhárápuram channel.
Sundakkápálaiyam do.
Pallapálaiyam do.
Panchamádéyi channel.
Níliváikkál do.
Ódanturai do.
Nellitturai channel.
Chitrac'chávadi do.
Pérúr Settiándi kuttai tank.
Kuniyamuttúr tank.
Kuric'chi do.
Krishnambúdi do.
Komárasámi do.
Coimbatore channel.
Coimbatore big tank.
Válánkulam tank.
Singánallúr do.
Irugúr channel.
Kárappatti do.
Pallivilangál aniout.
Dhali channel.
Appakkudal group of tanks.
Ennamangalam tank.
Gettisamudram do.
Kunnattúr. do.
Uppidamangalam do.
Vellalúr channel and tank.
Súlúr channel and tanks, large and small.

Kudimarámat.

This does not cancel the duties of kudimarámat or customary labour where such already exists, as on the Amarávati channels. In such cases, while the State charges itself with the formation of new works and with important additions to, alterations and repairs of, old works, all petty repairs and certain customary duties are carried out by the ryots themselves, usually, as in Karúr, under revenue supervision; consequently the fact that a channel is under improvement by the Public Works Department does not suspend, much less cancel, kudimarámat where it exists.

The details of kudimarámat vary for each taluk and channel; but it may be noted that the rule is to contribute labour or grain at so much per karai or unit of area, both the labour unit and area unit varying according to usage, but averaging for good river channels a value equal to Rs. 1–6–0 per acre. The practice

Kudimarámat.

is one of immemorial antiquity; the State originally claimed half, or a larger share of the gross produce, and the ryots were left to their own devices; consequently they united to keep their channels in order, assessing themselves at so many coolies and so much grain per karai or unit; this union was absolutely necessary in channels, whether anicut or korambu; in the former to keep channels clear, in the latter to form and maintain the korambus or temporary dams. In modern days the power or inclination to unite for common interest has temporarily broken down owing to the partial disruption of the village system, the substitution of individual for village interests, and the prevalence of faction. In Karúr the substitution of a money cess has been attempted for many years; it is now partially carried out, but the voluntary system is at the best imperfect and a legal enactment would be of great advantage. The following are the remarks of the late Mr. McWatters for five years in charge of the sub-division, where many of the chief channels are; they are contained in his reply to the questions of the Famine Commission of 1878:—

"The system of channel administration is as follows:—

"*Distribution of water.*—The duty of seeing that water from "Government irrigation works is properly distributed is supposed "to devolve upon the Revenue authorities.[2] The establishment "entertained for this purpose varies in every village. Under the "channels branching from the Nóyil river service ináms have "been set apart for the níráni monigars, nírgantis, &c., comprising "the distributing establishment; under the Bhaváni channels a "cess is entered separately in the pattás for this purpose and is "collected in the same manner as Government land revenue, "while under the Cauvery and Amarávati channels the distribut-"ing establishment is paid by voluntary contributions of grain. "Where service ináms have been allotted, or where the custom has "grown up of entering a separate cess in the pattás, the appoint-"ment and dismissal of the establishment rests solely with the "Revenue authorities. Where the voluntary system of paying in "kind prevails, the cultivators appoint the distributing establish-"ment themselves and the Revenue authorities have practically no "control over the distribution of the water. The rich and influen-"tial ryot has it all his own way and the poorer ryot is generally "the sufferer. An obstinate ryot paralyses the whole system, and "the establishment either strikes for wages or sides with a parti-"cular party or faction in the village and places every obstacle in

[2] In the case of some of the channels, the work of distribution is now undertaken by the Public Works Department.—ED.

CHAP. X. IRRIGATION. — Kudimarámat.

"the way of all others getting water. The grain voluntarily "contributed forms a sort of general fund in the hands of a "selected headman, who, besides paying the actual establishment, "defrays also any extra expenditure entailed on the village by "official visits, &c., and the balance, sometimes very considerable, "he appropriates to his own use. This headman is really the only "party interested in keeping up such a system.

"*Annual clearance of silt.*—In the channels under the Bhaváni "and Nóyil the Public Works Department carries out this work. "In the case of the Kálingaráyan channel there is a particular "cess levied for this purpose as well as for the distributing "establishment, and this is collected by the Revenue Department "and carried to the credit of irrigation. The southern channels "or those leading from the Cauvery and Amarávati are cleared, "except in special instances, by kudimarámat, that is, by voluntary "combined village labour. Kudimarámat, however, has greatly "fallen into desuetude and has been found well nigh impossible to "enforce in practice. The result naturally is that these channels "are not attended to.

"*Korambus.*—Channels without anicuts are particularly trouble-"some. To secure a proper supply of water in such channels, every "time the rivers are low the ryots should voluntarily combine "among themselves and construct temporary dams or korambus to "raise the level of the water in the rivers and force it into the "channels. The first fresh washes these korambus away, and "when the water runs low again they have to be reconstructed. "If the ryots combine the work is easily done, but when they "quarrel, as they nearly always do now, the korambus are either "not raised at all or done so indifferently that the water fails. A "great many of the cultivators under the Pugalúr channel have "been nearly ruined during the last two or three years owing to "dissensions about korambus. The channel administration is "susceptible of vast improvements. At present the channels from "the Nóyil and Bhaváni are much better managed than those "from the Cauvery and Amarávati, simply because everything is "left to the ryots themselves under these latter channels. The "ryots are supposed to combine voluntarily and pay in kind for "the upkeep of the distributing establishment, the annual clear-"ance and frequent korambus, and they seldom or never do so "and the channels are neglected. I do not know how two such "different systems have existed side by side for so long in the "same district. It would seem that at one time the voluntary "system prevailed under every channel, and that owing to the "difficulties it gave rise to, as in the case of the Kálingaráyan

Kudimarámat.

"channel, the Government allowed the voluntary grain allowances "to be commuted into fixed money payments and entered in the "pattás. This was done also at the instance of the ryots under "the Pugalúr channel for a few years, but when Mr. Webster was "Sub-Collector he considered it was illegal, and the old grain "system was reverted to, and since that time the Pugalúr channel "has been the cause of constant and bitter feuds, and has regularly "been neglected.[3] The tahsildar is simply helpless in the matter, "as he has absolutely no control whatever over the distributing "establishment, and he finds it impossible to muster coolies for "either the working of the korambus or the annual clearance."

On this subject see also Collector's letter No. 135 of 1880 with its references, and Mr. Arundel's pamphlet on Irrigation and Communal Labour, written when Sub-Collector of Coimbatore. The kudimarámat on tanks is similar to that noted in the Board's Standing Order on the subject.

Channels are fed either by anicuts or korambus; in the former case there is little trouble; so long as water goes down the river it is thrown down the channel by the dam, and it only remains to keep the channel and its head in good order. Korambus are temporary dams of brushwood and piles extending for perhaps half a mile up the bed of a river and leading the water to the mouth of the channel. As soon as a river gets low, these are run out by the united labour of the ryots, and it is these and their upkeep for several months, and their renewal when washed away by freshes, that cost so much in labour and united effort. It is, however, only on the Cauvery that these dams are very costly and troublesome.

Irrigation sources—*Rivers.*

Little land is irrigated from the Cauvery, which flows along a bed far below the surrounding country until it has passed Erode; except a small quantity in Kollégál, the Cauvery wet lands all lie in Karúr. Below Erode the river requires embanking; this has been done as far as Vángal; below that there is no bank and a good deal of land in Nerúr is occasionally submerged and covered with sand, involving loss to the ryots and to Government.

The Bhavání in Satyamangalam and Erode and the Amarávati in Udamalpet, Dhárápuram and Karúr, are by far the most important irrigation rivers. The Nóyil irrigation is first class; this little river is more of the nature of a jungle stream, and has from time immemorial (*vide* Collector's reports) been noted for its capriciousness and the violence and the brief duration of its

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[3] There is now no difficulty in Pugalúr on this score; ryots have agreed to pay a cess of Re. 1–8–0 per acre, to be collected by the tahsildar and given out for use as wanted. This is also done in several other Karúr channels.

CHAP. X. IRRIGATION.

Irrigation sources—*Rivers.*

freshes; it has consequently been supplemented by tanks which it fills along its course; these are specially noticeable at Coimbatore town. In Palladam taluk a considerable area used to be fed by channels, which, when the river was not in fresh, were supplied, though scantily, by spring channels, *i.e.*, excavations dug in the sand for miles above the channel bed and intercepting the underground current, which was then always available, as at this day in the river Vaigai of the Madura district. Of late years these spring channels have been found useless, the underground flow being but slight and short. This and the increased violence and fitfulness of the freshes are directly attributable to the denudation of the Bolampatti forests at its source to supply the immense fuel and timber demand of Coimbatore and its neighbourhood. It is the loss of the underground current that has caused a large transfer in the recent settlement from wet to dry, and it is in this loss that the forest denudation has most shown its effects, a result which agrees equally with observation and inference. The conservation of the forests which yield a gradual supply to the more important Bhaváni and Amarávati rivers is a source of some anxiety; the forester here is more important than even the engineer.

Roughly speaking, all the rivers of the district are rivers of the south-west monsoon, and the irrigation therefore begins with that monsoon; the rain-fed tanks and jungle streams are fed generally by the north-east monsoon, which is capricious in the extreme.

Channels or canals.

The channels are in fair repair, but require an immense amount of improvement; anicuts and retaining walls need attention, beds require clearing, sectioning, and reducing to a uniform level and fall; blasting is often requisite in beds; head works and sand sluices are to be built; escapes to be screw-shuttered and made water-tight; field sluices to be regulated and built; aqueducts, syphons or masonry kolváys (escapes) for the passage of surface streams to be constructed or improved; banks to be strengthened, new cuts to be made, and so forth.

Stream-fed tanks.

There are two series of stream-fed tanks, viz., the Áppakkudal series in Bhaváni taluk and the Dhali series in Udamalpet taluk. The first is fed from the Bargúr hills by various petty streams, and the tanks usually fill in the north-east monsoon. A very fine tank (Ennamangalam) at the head of the series, which had for years been totally ruined, was repaired in 1884 at an expense of Rs. 19,000, and it promises a good return both to Government and the ryots. The Dhali series is fed by streams from the Ánaimalais; for further details see Udamalpet taluk notice.

Irrigation sources—Rain-fed tanks.

Rain-fed tanks, *i.e.*, those fed by surface streams after heavy rain, are more or less isolated and of little importance; cultivation is very precarious under them, and is seldom successful more than once in three years. They are all much silted; beyond strengthening the bunds, replacing the revetments where necessary, and repairing the sluices, little can be done; money spent is too often wasted. Mr. J. Sullivan remarked more than 60 years ago that the ryots were clamorous to have the silt removed from the tanks, but that this was a useless undertaking, as the expenses would be immense, while they would be again silted up in a short time. Those who know the shallow ponds called rain-fed tanks in the Coimbatore district, with the wide, shallow waterspread necessitated by the flatness of the country, and the small irrigable area, will recognize the justice of Mr. Sullivan's opinion. All that can be done is to strengthen the existing banks. Moreover, the revenue returns show that these tanks have continually failed to receive a supply owing to defective rainfall; and of late years this is still more the case, since (1) cultivation has greatly extended, so that ordinary rain does not run off so readily as formerly; (2) wells have trebled in number since 1800, so that, as each well has a long substantial watercourse and very often a bund to store up water and protect the well, the surface water is caught and retained in thousands of pools, while the earth, being more porous near the wells, more readily absorbs the fall. Hence it is almost useless to spend money on mere rain-fed tanks in the open country.

Wells

The most important irrigation in the district, viz., that from wells, is private. The area actually irrigated from wells is about three times that irrigated from Government works; in all ordinary seasons they give an unfailing supply; in bad seasons indeed, especially when the heavy rains of the north-east monsoon fail, the worst wells go dry, but even in the famine of 1877–78 the majority of wells held out and yielded their owners splendid returns. Mr. Clogstoun remarks that they are "the chief mainstay of the revenue," which is true, but they are still more the chief mainstay of the ryot. Every officer, from MacLeod onwards, has added his testimony to the vital importance of the wells in this district as enabling the ryot to grow "two certain crops instead of one precarious one, which is all he can expect when he depends upon the falling rain for his cultivation" in a district "where a failure in the rains is a misfortune of frequent occurrence" (J. Sullivan, 1828); Mr. E. B. Thomas (1857) speaks of them as "the heart and life of the district" (Jamabandi Report, fasli 1266).

CHAP. X. IRRIGATION. Irrigation sources—*Wells.*

The following table shows by taluks the area of occupied dry lands, that of similar lands actually irrigated by wells, the ratio of the latter to the former, and the average extent irrigated from each well:—

Taluk.	Occupied dry area.*	Area actually irrigated by wells.	Percentage ratio, column 3 to column 2.	Area irrigated from each well.
1	2	3	4	5
	ACS.	ACS.		ACS.
Bhavâni	144,331	14,830	10·3	3·6
Coimbatore	282,844	26,282	9·3	4·8
Dhârâpuram	471,549	47,319	10·0	4·6
Erode	304,230	33,195	10·9	3·0
Karûr	297,129	24,117	8·1	2·8
Kollégâl	77,702	69	0·1	1·0
Palladam	410,076	63,311	15·4	6·1
Pollâchi	219,056	13,608	6·2	3·2
Satyamangalam	201,182	22,632	11·2	3·0
Udamalpet	180,991	27,171	15·0	7·6
TOTAL ...	**2,589,090**	**272,534**	**10·5**	**4·2**

* Includes Government and minor inám.

There are 65,461 wells in the district, of which 63,025 are in good condition, while the remaining 2,436 are out of repair. In addition to these wells, which are situated in dry lands, there are 2,912 others in wet lands; these are almost solely in tank-fed lands and are used to supplement the precarious and scanty tank supply; *e.g.*, at Puttûrpallapâlaiyam in Erode the tank seldom gets even half its full supply, yet splendid crops of sugarcane, &c., are largely grown by means of the wells in the fields, in which the lift is low and the water-supply abundant. The wells on dry lands are not all in use though in good order and with usually a good supply of water; of the wells not in use some represent those at a distance from villages, so that their owners do not care, or are unable, to use them, and many represent ancient wells abandoned for new ones between 1854 and 1864, when the garden assessment was retained on old wells but not imposed on new ones. The wells in use irrigate the well-known Coimbatore 'gardens,' which are indeed the mainstay of the district. Much of this garden land is cropped twice and even three times in the year, especially near towns, but a large proportion is only cropped once per annum, the irrigable area being cultivated half for one crop and half for another. There is no possible rule; each ryot cultivates according to his means, his energy, his cattle, his manure, the amount of water in his well, the nature of his soil, and his market.

CHAP. X. IRRIGATION.

Irrigation sources—*Wells.*

It will be observed that whereas the district average is about 4 acres actually irrigated per well in use, the area in Karúr is less than 3 acres, in Bhaváni and Erode about 3 acres, whereas in Udamalpet the irrigable area per well is about 8 acres, in Palladam 6 acres, and in Coimbatore 5 acres. In the former three taluks the subsoil is more rocky, the surface poor and gravelly, and water less abundant, while in Bhaváni markets are somewhat distant; in Udamalpet, Palladam and Coimbatore there is a large area of splendid black and red soils, while there are excellent markets, especially in Coimbatore; it is clear that the black soil and deep red loams being retentive of water, can get on with a much smaller supply.

Wells have from one to three lifts according to size and water-supply. The 2,436 wells not in repair are those abandoned from time to time for failure of springs, for unsuitability or exhaustion of soil, by reason of poverty, by coming upon rock, and as a result of the change of assessment in 1854 adverted to above.

These wells are of all depths and sizes, costing from Rs. 150 to Rs. 600 according to size, depth, nature of the soil, &c. Those in good situations will run over in a heavy monsoon, others seldom get more than a few feet of water. They are sunk into the gneiss, and the subsoil looks most unpromising for water, which, however, finds its way through fissures nearly as fast as it can be drawn off. In 1800 there were between 18,000 and 22,000 wells; the increase up to 1852, when they numbered 35,107, was steady but slow, as garden rates, say Rs. 4 per acre, were charged up to that time; when the principle was then laid down that no such restriction should be placed upon private enterprise, wells rapidly increased in spite of the fact that the best situations had already been taken up. There is now absolutely no restriction; gardens pay only ordinary dry rates, and even if wells should lapse to Government, as in the famine, no charge whatever is made for the land, beyond the ordinary dry rate, to a ryot who takes up the field. The value of the well, however, is collected from the new occupant.

Thousands of sites for wells are still available, but this is rather because of the distance of such sites from the village than from ignorance or want of capital. Excellent wells may even be seen full of water, but not used for irrigation because they are far from the village, and garden crops need watching. As the homestead practice progresses, these sites will be utilized. In view of the fact that wells after costing a good deal are sometimes abandoned because of the interposition of impenetrable rock,[4] it has been

[4] Gunpowder is now freely used by the ryots for purposes of blasting rocks, and the number of licenses issued during the year 1892 authorizing its possession and transport amounted to 7,238.—ED.

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Irrigation sources—*Wells.*

suggested by Messrs. J. Sullivan (1829), J. Thomas (1831), Robertson (1875), that boring tools should be supplied to each taluk for the use of the ryot, or that a Government party should travel about, bore in all likely spots, and record in the accounts and maps the depth and particulars of reaching water. It is however to be noted that the subsoil is so very hard that an auger has no chance, and that the use of the chisel and other apparatus for hard soils involves great expense, while the rods are apt to get jammed and be inextricable, as has already happened in Coimbatore. Oddas can be employed to sink a small trial well for less than a bore hole would in most cases cost, and a Government party of Oddas would probably be of service. The ryots themselves could easily do this if they liked, but they seem to trust to luck, and sometimes to divination by pouring water on a sheep's head and noting the place where she shakes herself. Practically the ryot trusts to observation and good luck more than to divination, and it is certain that the divination, if practised, only concerns the particular spot in a part of a field, for wells are invariably sunk in such positions as to obtain a good supply of water consistent with watering the best part of the field; ryots are sharp enough in this matter. The great obstacle to more rapid progress has hitherto been the want of capital, a drawback which has been removed in recent years by the readiness with which the Government has come forward with the offer of loans on easy terms. From April 1886 to February 1894 the total amount advanced was nearly fourteen lakhs, borrowed for the construction of 7,000 wells.

The invariable water lift is the single-bucket cattle-lift (yéttam), the picottah or basket only being used for shallow lifts from channels or pools. Regarding lifts Mr. Robertson has expressed a strong opinion in favour of his special whim observing that by its adoption a saving might be effected equal to the whole revenue paid to Government, or say 20 lakhs per annum. If such a splendid saving be possible it is to be regretted that district practice and opinion are opposed to this lift; it is however generally considered that there would be no gain by its adoption. The ryot uses the small power at his disposal in apparently the best possible way, viz., by applying the weight of his cattle running down an incline direct to the bucket without the intervention of any machine save a simple pulley. If, however, but one-tenth of this sum or 2 lakhs per annum could be saved, it would repay the State tenfold every year to employ a party to inculcate and prove its economy, by experiments at ryots' own wells side by side with their own lifts. It is noteworthy that the richer ryots and gentlemen who daily see these lifts at work decline to adopt them even though they may approve of them officially.

CHAP. X. IRRIGATION. — Development of irrigation.

The development of irrigation divides itself into four heads: (1) new projects, (2) the restoration of ruined works, (3) the extension and improvement of existing works, (4) the better use of existing supplies of water, or improvements in distribution.

The principal new projects that have been suggested are: (1) the project of Colonel Montgomery to store the flood waters of the Bhaváni in an immense reservoir about 4 miles above Satyamangalam, and thence to irrigate a vast tract of country through Palladam and Dhárápuram down to the Amarávati—a project which, if feasible and carried out, would transform 50,000 acres into wet land, create immense wealth, and go far to deliver the district from serious famine, since the Bhaváni, being fed by the south-west monsoon on the Western Ghauts, has never been known to fail. This project is now under investigation. (2) The Muttikkulam or Siruvani project to divert the upper waters of the Siruvàni, a tributary of the Bhaváni, to the Nóyil by means of a dam and tunnel—a project which, if carried out, would, besides feeding the numerous tanks and channels near the upper part of the Nóyil river, irrigate the full extent of the registered áyakat of several of the anicuts lower down the river, the assessment on which is now either remitted or reduced to the dry rate year after year for want of sufficient water. The ryots are strongly in favour of this project, which might also give Coimbatore a much-needed water-supply. The catchment area of the Siruvani above the site of the proposed dam is, however, only about 7 square miles, and it is doubtful whether the project will fulfil the high expectations that have been formed of it. Detailed investigations are now being made. (3) The extension of the Kálingaráyan channel, so as to bring 13,000 additional acres under irrigation, which has been sanctioned, is postponed for want of funds; the estimate amounts to Rs. 8,71,000.

On this subject of new projects of irrigation Mr. Wedderburn, formerly Collector of the district, wrote as follows in 1872:—

"2. Several schemes of water storage were once mooted. The "Bhaváni valley above Méttuppálaiyam was to be bunded up to an "immense height, but no plans or estimates were ever made as far "as is known here.

"3. A feeder of the Bhaváni was to be diverted and turned "into the source of the Nóyil, which springs from the mountain "side above Bolampatti. I understand that the junction of the "waters was to be effected by cutting through a hill ridge and by "a 250 feet embankment, or else by a catch-water drain along the "mountain side, and a former Collector adverted to benefits which "would arise if Bolampatti valley were made a reservoir. No

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"doubt valleys are capable of being converted into reservoirs (this "one, by the way, is now under cultivation) and extensive projects "may be mooted, but in the absence of data of expense, I can "pretend to no opinion on the subject.

"4. The Bhaváni, as a river, is very considerably utilized, so "much so that it scarcely irrigates all the land subject to it, and "cannot irrigate that land with a double crop. It seems very "doubtful to me whether much more could be made of it than is "now done. The regulation of its supply to meet all the demands "occupies a deal of anxious attention.

"5. However, I examined the Kaniyámpálaiyam anicut and "channel between Sirumugai and Danáyakkankóttai, now out of "repair. The anicut is a rough native one; some of the large "coping stones have been displaced, and there is the disadvantage "of a jungle stream of considerable size debouching opposite the "anicut and at the head of the channel, silting it up to a great "extent.

"The country [5] through which the channel passes is most dan-"gerous to health, frequented by tigers, and uninhabited. Danáyak-"kankóttai, once a large fort, is entirely deserted, and the cultivators "cross the Bhaváni to their work on the left bank during the day, "returning to their homes on the right bank at night. The "estimate for repairing the anicut and channel is Rs. 3,100; the "ayacut 1,208 acres; the revenue for the past year 1870–71, when "in repair, Rs. 947–4–0. The original and subsequent outlays on "repairs amount to Rs. 58,589, and scarcely Rs. 40,000 have been "realized in forty-five years.

"6. The Cauvery river is proposed to be utilized by an anicut "at Nerinjippéttai for the advantage of this district and Salem.[6] I "have no conception of what the cost of the work will be, so cannot "guess as to its remunerative value; the prospective return was "roughly guessed at Rs. 26,000 per annum in this district. The "channel to be taken off was to be a single cross one and a short "cross one, so as not to interfere with the interests of the Trichino-"poly and Tanjore cultivators. The possible drawback may be the "very unhealthy character of the confined banks of the Cauvery.

"7. The Amarávati is very fully utilized. It rises in the valley "between the Ánaimalais and the Palnis, and a limitation has to "be placed on extended irrigation from it, so as not to interfere "with existing interests. I know of no extension of irrigation "that could be recommended.

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[5] This area would probably be entirely submerged if Colonel Montgomery's scheme be carried out.

[6] The idea has been given up; see page 339.—ED.

Development of irrigation.

"8. Also the Nóyil does not nearly suffice for the tanks depend-"ent on it; it barely filled its upper tanks during the last south-"west monsoon, its source being in the western ranges of hills "above Bolampatti. It came down in a flood last November, but "that was due to an unprecedented local rainfall, not from its "source, but lower down, by jungle streams bursting tanks and "these pouring into the river. It would be utter waste of money "to provide storage for a flood that occurs once in a lifetime.

"9. On the whole, I think that this district is well provided "as regards the utilization of the sources of irrigation. I would "look for advantage, not to the construction of more, but to the "improvement of the present works, building more minor irrigation "or distribution sluices, extending calingulas, levelling and revet-"ting channel and tank banks."

On the above it is to be remarked that, as to the project in paragraph 3, the question of expense is now being examined; the stream which is to be diverted may be seen from Coimbatore in the south-west monsoon above the saddle which it would have to cross to feed the Nóyil. The difficulties do not seem at all insurmountable to modern engineering skill. It is also true that the Bhaváni supplies a good deal of irrigation, and that it is 'very considerably utilized,' but it is a perennial river with heavy floods, which, if curbed by reservoirs, would be beneficial instead of destructive or useless. Moreover, it is not the regulation of the river-supply that occupies anxious attention so much as of that part which is taken off by the channels. Some difficulty, indeed, exists at the anicut which feeds the Tadappalli and Arakkankóttai channels, when the river is very low; this is met by a temporary bund along the top of the anicut; there is sufficient water in the river if the anicut crest is temporarily raised. But even if the river-supply be defective during certain seasons, the question of storing the immense unused volumes of flood water is unaffected, or rather the necessity is increased.

The Nerinjippéttai anicut actually exists in part; it was built by a Mysore Rájá and used, in fact, to feed a channel on each side of the river (Buchanan), but breached long before Buchanan's visit in 1800. It is believed that Sir Arthur Cotton desired to revive this work if only to assist in curbing the Cauvery floods (*cf.* those of November 1880 and July 1882), and intended to drive a large channel through Salem and South Arcot to Porto Novo, using it both for irrigation and communication. The project was examined some years ago, but the report was very unfavourable, and the further investigation of the project has been abandoned.

It is true that the Nóyil is capricious, but the expression 'a flood that only occurs once in a lifetime' is much too wide; the

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old reports frequently speak of its freshes and fitfulness, and it has been down in heavy flood many times since 1879 both in the south-west and north-east monsoon, traffic having been several times stopped for days in the Dhárápuram and Erode taluks for several days together. Whether storage can be provided is a question, but there is ample flood water; it is to be remembered that a four or six months' tank once filled will give a crop whenever it happens to be filled, which would usually be in July or November. The ryots of Periyapálaiyam (Erode) suggested a short channel from near Tiruppúr to their tank, which, though nominally fed by a jungle stream called the Nallár, has only filled once (1883) since 1877; the ryots of Pálattozhuvu (Erode) also suggest a channel from the Vadugapálaiyam anicut.

In this connection the replies of Messrs. Mead, Pennycuick, and Awdry to the Famine Commission of 1878 are of great importance. They stated of Salem and Coimbatore that "it is always possible "to find works of this class (irrigation works involving heavy "embankments and the excavation of canals), whose remunerative "character is beyond question; the time when all possible remuner-"ative works in Salem or Coimbatore shall have been completed "is so far distant as not to be within the limit of practical consider-"ation. In the Coimbatore district the construction of reservoirs "on the Bhaváni and other tributaries of the Cauvery would be of "permanent value in regulating the supplies to the channels from "the Bhaváni and Cauvery rivers, and would from their nature be "useful works for relief purposes, though their direct return would "not be sufficient to justify their construction in ordinary times. "If waste of water can be put down, several channels from the "Amarávati and other rivers might with advantage be extended." The remark as to the direct return does not, of course, apply to storage schemes such as the Bhaváni storage scheme above alluded to, but to works undertaken as relief works and intended merely to regulate and supplement the supply in various channels.

On the whole it seems that it is generally in the direction of storage that schemes for new works must tend; the great rivers come down in vast floods and are not only a source of danger to the districts below, but flow uselessly and mischievously to the sea, as notably in November 1880 and July 1882, irrespective of the numerous ordinary floods; the valleys of upper Coimbatore appear to present facilities for such schemes, of which Colonel Montgomery's is one. General Morgan has mentioned other schemes (Agricultural Exhibition Prize Essay, 1883), such as that of the Attappádi valley, the "Silent valley" of the Bhaváni, the Móyár valley near Gazzalhatti, and the Nallár (? Pálár) river near its

junction with the Cauvery at Nadukkával, but particulars are not known.

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The restoration of ruined works is also occupying attention. The Ennamangalam tank in Bhaváni, fed from the Bargúr hills, was finished in 1884; another in Karúr having an unusually large gathering ground is to be repaired as an aid to the Pallapálaiyan channel.

Buchanan (chap. 8) states that there used to be in Kollégál taluk 40 or 50 tanks in good order about 1720 A.D., which went to ruin in the second half of that century. At present there are only 17 in good order.[1] He mentions a number of ruined tanks between Pállia and Singánallúr in this taluk; also several dams and channels on the Tattâhalla river which might be utilized for feeding storage tanks; similarly at Kowdalli. In the Bhaváni taluk below gháts he noticed a very large ruined tank (Swayamvara éri, 5 miles south-west of Kávéripuram, fed by the Swayamvara pallam), said to have irrigated over 500 acres of land; south of Kávéripuram, but north of Pálamalai, he noticed the Kolattúr river which fed the Kolattúr tank, between which and the Cauvery four other tanks, besides one above the Kolattúr tank, used formerly to irrigate a good deal of land, but had been breached by a flood; these have not been repaired.

In the improvement of existing works there is much to be done; several points have been noticed above. Extension is not always possible, but many channels will allow of it in some degree. But until existing supplies are regulated and more economically distributed, no extension of importance is practicable. The extension of the Kálingaráyan across the Nóyil, where it now ends, through the Karúr taluk as far as Karúr, so that its tail waters would fall into the Amarávati, is an important work. This is said by Buchanan to have been the ancient terminus of the channel, and there are traces both in the names of fields and in embankments to this day. The extension has been surveyed and planned, and will be carried out when funds are available as the channel now waters only 21,469 acres including inám lands, while enough water enters it to irrigate (theoretically) above 40,000 acres. This project involves preliminary attention to existing field sluices, as the immense body of water is used in immoderate excess, as much as 250 inches being used in some tracts for the two crops, while from 90 to 110 would be ample; after a 2-inch fall of rain, irrigation is not required for a week.

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[1] Many of the tanks of this taluk were put in good order in 1891-92 since the above was written.—ED.

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It is in the matter of distribution of field sluices that attention is especially required; the importance of the subject from an agricultural, economical, revenue and engineering point of view demands treatment at some length.

A regulation of the field sluices would benefit agriculture, be an economical boon, relieve revenue officers of difficulties as to water-supply and distribution, and enable the engineers to find water for their extensions.

(1) Sluices are too numerous; *e.g.*, the Kálingaráyan is 62 miles long, irrigates about 21,000 acres, and has 1,840 sluices, or on an average one sluice for 11 acres. Many of these sluices are side by side or within a few feet of one another; the work of such could easily be done by one new sluice. Mr. Hannan proposed to regulate the channels by a very few sluices with cisterns at the rear, irrigating the fields in turn by small channels along the toe of the bund; this was considered impracticable. But where three, four, and even seven sluices may be seen (*e.g.*, Kolinjivádi) starting side by side from one immense orifice in a bank, it is obvious that many could be done away with.

(2) They are too large, and this is the chief evil. This may be inferred from the fact that the Kálingaráyan tail water is very scanty, though the channel receives water sufficient for 40,000 acres and irrigates only about 21,000. Mr. Arundel's remarks in the settlement reports of Satyamangalam and Coimbatore (paragraphs 5 and 34) and in his pamphlet on irrigation demand attention, and are of general application. It is to be remembered that a sluice of 6 inches square with an ordinary head of, say, 3 feet above the sill, will irrigate 50 or 60 acres:

"It is proper to notice here the excessive waste of water for "irrigation which prevails throughout these channels (Satyamanga-"lam). In numerous cases the water is taken off through open "cuts where no regulation takes place. Most of the old sluices are "needlessly large, and those that are built or repaired by the "Department of Public Works are frequently torn open by crow-"bars to enlarge the vents. The channel watchers altogether fail "in bringing such mischief to notice, and as the damage is usually "done at night, detection is almost impossible. The only effective "method of guarding sluices from damage or destruction seems to "be to make the villagers interested responsible for the safety of "the sluices, as they now are, under Act XXVIII of 1860 (section "9), for the safety of boundary stones. The irrigated area at the "end of both the Arakkankóttai and the Tadappalli channels has "been considerably contracted, while the contour of the country "affords every facility for extension of irrigation, and the water-"supply actually received into the channels is sufficient for the

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"irrigation of twice the present area. I have often seen great "volumes of water pouring back into the river after escaping "through the gaps and sluices, while the crops at the end of the "channel were withering for want of water to keep them alive. "Detailed information has been obtained regarding the size of the "sluice-vents, area irrigated, &c., of all the numerous sluices in the "two channels above referred to, and the lists have been forwarded "to the Collector for information and for record. An examination "of these lists is sufficient to account at once for all failure of crop "for want of water at the end of the channels. In paragraph 34 "of this report will be found some illustrations taken from a "similar list prepared for a channel in the Coimbatore taluk.

"The remarks already made regarding the waste of water in "the channels of the Satyamangalam taluk apply with equal force "to the channels in Coimbatore. I have obtained detailed infor-"mation regarding the size of the sluice-vents, area irrigated, &c., "in the Chitrac'chávadi channel, which is supplied by the river "Nóyil and irrigates about 4,000 acres of land. The following "extract from the list will show the utter absence of system and "control in the distribution of water, and I may add that this "absence of system is the rule and not the exception throughout "all the channels to which I refer:—

Chitrac'chávadi channel.		
Sluice number.	Size of vent in inches.	Area irrigated in acres.
32	16 × 16	76
33	16 × 16	15
34	14 × 14	6
35	12 × 12	20
36	14 × 14	194
37	14 × 14	49
38	14 × 18	20
39	Open cut through bank.	14
40	24 × 26	41
41	28 × 28	10
42	11 × 6	4
43	15 × 16	119

"Here it will be seen that the largest area under any one of "these sluices is 194 acres, and that the aperture or vent of that "sluice, No. 36, is 14 inches square. But the next sluice-vent, "No. 37, is of the same size, and has to irrigate only 49 acres. "The next again, No. 38, is still larger, and has to irrigate only "20 acres. Worse still No. 39, an open cut or gap through the "channel bank, irrigates only 14 acres. The largest sluice-vent of "all, No. 41, is a huge cavity more than two feet square, which "has to supply the trifling area of 10 acres.

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[8] "In illustration of the actual working of the system described "in the preceding pages, the following particulars are given "regarding a small channel supplied from the third weir across "the river Nóyil. It is one of the twenty-five fed by that river, "which together irrigate 19,000 acres, yielding a revenue of "Rs. 1,40,000. It has a total length of about six miles, and is "intended to supply four tanks or reservoirs, and to irrigate a total "area of 2,477 acres. Between the head or beginning of the "channel and the first of the four reservoirs or tanks there were, a "short time ago, eighteen sluices and one open cut through the "bank. The sluices had vents of such capacity that they would "suffice to irrigate an area of over 3,000 acres. The area actually "irrigated by them is only 183 acres. None of the sluices were "provided with shutters or plugs.[9] Huge volumes of water of "course escaped into the river before the channel reached the first "reservoir. Last season (1878) 200 acres that ought to have been "irrigated lay waste or grew inferior crops, and Rs. 700 of State "revenue were lost owing to deficiency of water. To bring about

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[8] Pamphlet on "Irrigation and Communal Labour," by A. T. Arundel, Esq., I.C.S.

[9] The following is a list of the sluices referred to, with the sizes of the old apertures and the area irrigated by each. Fractions of acres are omitted. The facts are striking enough. The smallest plot is only 2 acres in extent, and had a sluice-vent 1 foot high by 1½ broad to irrigate it! * The largest vent was 1½ feet high by 2 feet 3 inches broad, and had to irrigate only 12 acres. The twentieth sluice at the first reservoir or tank happens to be 14 inches square and it irrigates 204 acres. As 14 inches square is the average size of the aperture of the previous 19 sluices, multiplying 19 by 204, we get 3,876 acres as the area capable of irrigation. The result is, of course, true only on the supposition that there is a flow of water in the channel to correspond :—

No. of sluice.	Size of old aperture.	Area irrigated	No. of sluice.	Size of old aperture.	Area irrigated
	INCHES.	ACRES.		INCHES.	ACRES.
1	12 × 15 ...	8	12	10 × 7 ...	7
2	18 × 18 ...	11	13	12 × 21 ...	5
3	12 × 15 ...	10	14	9 × 9 ...	4
4	Open cut ...	3	15	10 × 10 ...	3
5	12 × 18 ...	2	16	15 × 15 ...	5
6	12 × 12 ...	15	17	18 × 21 ...	12
7	12 × 18 ...	18	18	12 × 14 ...	6
8	12 × 12 ...	3	19	13 × 18 ...	12
9	13 × 15 ...	33			
10	10 × 18 ...	14			
11	18 × 27 ...	12		Total ...	183

* A great deal depends on the height of the sill of the sluice; similar new sluices may be seen in other channels, purposely built by authority at a high level so as to catch only the high-level water, and consequently of large area, so as to drain off a sufficient supply on the occasions when the channel is running full. This is certainly a reason for the very large size of some sluices; of course all sluices, especially of such size, ought to have means of closure.

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"a better state of things, the chief landholders, at the suggestion "of the authorities, consented to defray the cost of regulating the "sluices in question, and the Engineer found that everything "could be set right for Rs. 325 or half of the sum lost to Govern- "ment in a single year. The money was paid as promised, and "the work has recently been completed by the Department of "Public Works.

"The actual loss of revenue on the twenty-five channels sup- "plied by the Nóyil river in 1875-76 was Rs. 27,856 on 3,051 "acres. As the total revenue should be Rs. 1,40,000, this is a loss "of 19 per cent. It is not asserted that the whole of this amount "could be saved to Government by careful economy of water. "That the bulk of it, however, would be saved is certain. It is "difficult, if not impossible, to show by figures the full loss to "Government, or to the cultivators, by the waste of water for irriga- "tion. In many instances the landholder finding the water-supply "insufficient, sinks a well to supplement it, and continues to pay "the high tax for irrigated land although no crop would reach "maturity without constant irrigation from the private well. "Here the cultivator is the loser, for if his land had been properly "irrigated from the channel he might have invested his capital "in sinking the well on unirrigated land elsewhere, or otherwise "have utilized it. In other cases, as the channel supply is in- "sufficient to raise rice, an inferior grain (ragi, cholum, &c.) with "smaller yield is grown instead. Sometimes the full tax is levied "on such land, and sometimes a reduction is made. Loss thus "ensues certainly to the cultivator and often to the Government.

"In other cases again, lands which would be irrigated if the "channel water were properly economized have been left without "irrigation for so long that they are transferred in the public "accounts to the head of unirrigated, and only the tax for un- "irrigated land is charged against them. Here both the culti- "vator and the Government are permanent losers. There are two "fine channels fed by the Bhaváni river, which irrigated at the "beginning of the century 16,000 acres. Of this area, 500 acres "have been permanently transferred to 'unirrigated' and a "revenue of Rs. 1,400 per annum is lost to the State. Both of "these channels receive a supply of water amply sufficient for all "needs, and calculations regarding the larger one show it to be "capable of irrigating 12,000 acres more than the area it now "supplies, which is 12,700 acres."

This account applies to the district generally; streams capable of watering 20 and 30 acres flow night and day to 2 and 3 acres even at the head of the Kálingaráyan.

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(3) They are dangerous, leading to numerous breaches; in a single rain storm seventeen breaches occurred, nearly all from this cause, in the first seven miles of the Kálingaráyan. In this important channel, even at the head there are numerous sluices which are mere tunnels built of rough stone in mud traversing a very large and high bank with a considerable head; some are mere palmyra troughs; several of the above breaches were at sluices of these descriptions. Some of the large masonry sluices are of rough workmanship, and an extra head thrusts the covering stones up and causes a leak into the bank.

(4) They are absolutely without means of closure. Even the masonry sluices have no closing apparatus and are shut, if shut at all, by the nírganti (official distributor) getting down into water sometimes four or five feet deep, and blocking up the mouth with mud; this he objects to do, and therefore avoids doing if possible, and if he does it, the ryot need only push a stick down to clear it at once. But many of the sluices are mere cuts in the bank which run in great streams day and night; it is common to meet a gang of ryots from a lower village hastening with mamotis to the upper villages to block up the so-called sluices which drain off the whole of the water. The Pallapálaiyam channel in Karúr taluk furnishes a good instance of this kind of waste; the two lower villages, comprising above 2,000 acres of wet land, can get no water if the numerous cuts above are all open.

To sum up, masonry sluices, placed only where necessary, with stoneware [10] pipe tunnels nicely calculated to give the proper discharge, and closable from the top of the bank by a screw provided with a lock, are essentially required. Whether with such means of regulation it might not be made possible to sell water by the cubic yard, as in the north, is a question; probably it would be better so to arrange the sluices that little waste could take place and leave assessment as it is, viz., upon the area.[11]

Baling from the natural bank of channels, though common, is not universal; this economical mode of using water should be

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[10] Stoneware pipes would not only enable the sluices to be regulated with nicety, but as they could be made small, there would be no great waste of water even if not closed; moreover the present practice of forcibly enlarging with crowbars the regulating orifice of a built sluice would be useless, since the whole length of the pipe, and not merely the mouth, would regulate the supply; there would also be much less danger of leakage; most of the breaches now occur from a strong head of water forcing up the covering stones of the present large and rude culverts and escaping into the earthen bank.

[11] Under the head of "Irrigation" in the Gazetteer notices of each taluk will be found some further details; the Kálingaráyan extension is more fully discussed in the Erode notice.

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encouraged. The quantity of water used is strictly limited by the ryot's wants, since he has to lift it; much of it drains back into the channel; the ground slopes to the channel, and is therefore porous and fit for any crop, while the lift is so small as to render the crop less costly[12] than when watered from a well, even allowing for the water-rate. Except where the banks are very high, as along parts of the Cauvery, Amarávati and Nóyil, this mode of irrigation is practised along rivers as well as channels. It may be economically developed by permitting the construction of pipe culverts along a cut in the soil to pits whence the water may be baled to high grounds; there are isolated instances of a long open cut, by which means fields that three years ago were dry uplands producing crops worth Rs. 10 per acre, are now gardens growing turmeric worth Rs. 150 per acre. The open cut is, however, comparatively wasteful.

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12. The Settlement Deputy Director in his report on Erode states that in baling from the Kálingaráyan channel "the cultivation is precarious" and the "lift of water as difficult and costly as in wells." The channel, however, flows steadily for ten months, and the lift is 5 to 15 feet instead of 20 to 40; the crops are splendid and the land hardly to be bought at any price.

CHAPTER XI.

FORESTS.

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FORESTS.

History of conservation.

Statement showing the extent of Forests in the district of Coimbatore on the 30th June 1894.

Name of taluk.	Reserved forests.		Reserved lands.		Total.	
	Number.	Extent.	Number.	Extent.	Number.	Extent.
		SQ. MLS.		SQ. MLS.		SQ. MLS.
Bhaváni	3	337·00	2	37·00	5	374·00
Coimbatore	10	197·12	...	...	10	197·12
Dhárápuram ...	34	10·81	2	1·94	36	12·75
Erode	...	...	26	42·51	26	42·51
Karúr	12	4·93	...	...	12	4·93
Kollégál	2	179·00	5	522·00	7	701·00
Palladam	...	...	54	(b) 17·59	54	17·59
Satyamangalam ...	4	305·81	3	295·00	7	600·81
Polláchi ...	4	(a) 187·99	...	...	7	187·99
Udamalpet ...		180·92	3	(c) 7·59		188·51
TOTAL ...	**69**	**1,403·58**	**95**	**923·63**	**164**	**2,327·21**

(a) Includes the extent of leased forests.
(b) The whole of this extent has since been unreserved.
(c) Of this extent 4·31 square miles were unreserved in 1894-95.

COIMBATORE is one of the few districts of the presidency which have real forests, as distinguished from the patches of scrub jungle and small trees which form the greater part of our reserves. The chief trees of the Coimbatore forests are the teak, the sandalwood and the blackwood, and their value was certainly appreciated by the Mysore Rájás and probably by the Madura Náyaks also. Tippoo had a fine forest of sandalwood on the mountains west of Denkanikóta, which was carefully reserved for ten or twelve years, being guarded by a body of 200 peons; but during the final war with the British a force of armed Náyars came over from Calicut, cut the whole of it down and carried off the timber.[1]

[1] Captain MacLeod's letter to the Board of Revenue, dated 19th February 1800.

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When the district first came into the possession of the English, the forests were regarded more as a property capable of yielding an immediate revenue than with reference to their future possibilities, and though as time went on this second aspect of the question received more attention, it was not until the re-organization effected by Dr. Brandis in 1882 that the general forest policy was put on a really satisfactory footing. The key-note of the present administration is that the great forests of the hill ranges will be worked primarily as a timber-producing property and managed on commercial principles; while the smaller woodlands scattered over the different taluks will be worked chiefly for the benefit of the local population, whose grazing and timber requirements are to be met from these reserves.

Forest divisions.

The district is divided into two forest charges, each under a District Forest officer, called, respectively, North Coimbatore and South Coimbatore. The northern division consists of the taluks of Bhaváni, Kollégál, Satyamangalam, Erode, Karúr and Dhárápuram, while the southern division comprises the rest of the district, *i.e.*, the Coimbatore, Palladam, Pollâchi and Udamalpet taluks.

Description of the forests.

NORTH COIMBATORE FORESTS.[2]—For purposes of forest administration, North Coimbatore is divided into five ranges, viz., Talaimalai, Satyamangalam, Kollégál, Bhaváni and Erode. The afforested parts of Kollégál, Satyamangalam and Bhaváni taluks are chiefly hill tracts, having an extent of more than half the total area of those taluks. They may be said to be a continuation, albeit very irregular and broken, of the Mysore plateau. In order to reach the western portion of the Satyamangalam forests the Gazzalhatti ghát has to be ascended, a steep stony pass leading up to Talaimalai from the valley of the Móyár. Going eastwards, the next ghát road is that leading by an ascent $6\frac{1}{2}$ miles long from a point 10 miles north-west from Satyamangalam town, the head of the ghát being called Dhimbam. This ghát road is practicable for carts. After reaching Dhimbam the road descends to Hássanúr, where it bifurcates, one branch going through the Punjúr or Pulinjúr valley, after which point the road goes through Mysore territory, till it strikes the Kollégál taluk, a few miles from Kollégál town. This road is the main road to Kollégál. The other bifurcation from Hássanúr goes through a long tract of forest,

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[2] This description of the Coimbatore forests was originally contributed to the first edition of the *Manual* by Mr. A. W. Peet, formerly District Forest officer and now Conservator of Forests. It has been revised by Mr. H. A. Gass, District Forest officer, South Coimbatore.

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through Geddésál, Bailúr, and Lokkanahalli to Kollégál. This road, although entirely in Coimbatore territory, is not much frequented, as the alternative road is at an easier gradient and does not run through forest. Consequently the road is kept up only partially. Eastwards from the Dhimbam ghát road, the next ascent from the plains is a stony track west of Kumbatarine hill; the next is another track up the valley above Sellipálaiyam; then comes another up the valley above Kongarapálaiyam. Going eastwards again, there are various small tracks to the hills in the Bhaváni taluk, and then comes the Bargúr ghát road. This road was traced some years ago at a great expense, but it is at present a good deal out of repair. It traverses the Bargúr hills and at Mardalli it joins a road leading to Kollégál. To the east of the Bargúr ghát road there are only a few stony tracks leading up to the hills.

The south-west portion of the Satyamangalam forests is a tract known as the eastern slopes of the Nílgiris, which is now a reserved forest. It is bounded by the taluk limits on the eastern crest of the Nílgiris and by the Móyár and Bhaváni rivers. In the upper portion there are some coffee estates, and in the lower some villages, which have been excluded. There are one or two important streams in this forest which flow into the Bhaváni and Móyár, and the forest growth on the slopes is maintained chiefly for climatic reasons. Vast numbers of cattle are collected during the drier months of the year from the non-forest taluks, and it is contemplated to restrict cattle-grazing only in small portions of this tract, and with extreme caution; as this, in common with the greater part of the North Coimbatore forests, is at present valuable chiefly as a huge grazing ground.

The country above the Gazzalhatti ghát, before mentioned, consists of a tract of forest much interspersed with hill villages. This is one of the chief sandalwood tracts, for this tree is found as a rule in the neighbourhood of villages. The extreme west of this part of the taluk is largely cultivated, and bears only a little scrub jungle on the hills.

To the east of the sandalwood tract lie a succession of hills covered by open forest, of no particularly large timber; but containing some teak (*Tectona grandis*), ác'chá (*Hardwickia binata*), átti (*Bauhinia racemosa*), kadukkái (*Terminalia chebula*), matti (*Terminalia tomentosa*), vellai nágai (*Anogeissus latifolia*), véngai (*Pterocarpus marsupium*), karungáli (*Acacia sundra*), únjai (*Albizzia amara*), karkattam (*Zizyphus glabrata*), satinwood (*Chloroxylon swietenia*), and other trees.

These hills are also much used as a grazing ground.

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Sandalwood appears again in large quantities about the village of Hássanúr, which lies in a basin to the east of these hills; and this tree is found along the whole of the Pulinjúr valley.

The forest in the Pulinjúr valley is of much larger growth than that on the hills, and a large trade is carried on by Mysore merchants in bamboos and timber from this part of the forest.

The tract to the east of Dhimbam is peculiar. It consists of a high plateau known as the Malaikád, and is much interspersed with hill villages inhabited by Badagas, who have emigrated at various times from the Nílgiris. The average height of this plateau is over 4,000 feet, and here sandalwood is found in abundance, though the elevation is rather high for this growth.

From Hássanúr the road ascends a ghát to Geddésál. Sandalwood entirely disappears from the forest a short distance from the foot of the ghát, the general forest growth being similar to that on the hills above described.

About Geddésál for some distance is found a tract of really fine forest, good specimens of blackwood (*Dalbergia latifolia*) growing among the other trees mentioned. Along the margin of the streams mango trees grow to a large size, showing a certain amount of moisture in the sub-soil. After leaving Geddésál the general character of the forest over the hills is open, and trees are for the most part small and stunted; and with the exception of the tract along the foot of the Biligirirangam hills to the west, and the slopes of some of the higher ranges on the east, this open stunted growth is the general characteristic of the North Coimbatore forests.

The whole forest tract is more or less interspersed with villages, and is at present grazed over. On the eastern slopes the chief wood is ác'chá (*Hardwickia binata*), which attains considerable size; teak as a rule is not of first-class dimensions.

Sandalwood is found more or less in the neighbourhood of all the hill villages, particularly about that part of the Satyamangalam taluk of which Ekkattúr is the centre; that part of Kollégál of which Porasakkavundanpálaiyam is the centre; and on the Ponnác'chimalai and Mádéswaramalai; and in Bhaváni on the Bargúr and Katrimalai.

The chief *hill ranges* are—

(1) The Biligirirangams.—These hills run in a general direction north and south for nearly 40 miles, between the Kollégál taluk and Mysore. Formerly the greater part of these hills was held to be British property; but after a succession of disputes a large portion of them has been awarded to Mysore. This is a fine

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range, having evergreen forest on the higher slopes, and valuable deciduous forest on the lower.

(2) The range next in importance is Ponnác'chimalai to the north-east of Kollégál taluk.

(3) South of the above range lies Mádéswaramalai, known far and wide as the scene of enormous annual cattle-fairs. These gatherings are supposed to have had a religious origin, and religious ceremonies form part of the annual programme; but in reality they are now cattle marts. Cattle are carefully bred on both these hill tracts, and form the greater part of the wealth of the ryots, who grow only moderate crops of ragi for their support.

(4) To the south of Mádéswara lie the hills known as Katrimalai.

(5) To the south of these lie the Bargúr hills; both of these ranges are in the Bhaváni taluk, and are imposing blocks.

(6) To the east of the taluk lies the Pálamalái range, parallel with the Cauvery river.

(7) In the Satyamangalam taluk the chief ranges are Kumbatarine, Vellánkómbai, and the eastern slopes of the Nílgiris.

The chief rivers connected with the forest tracts are—

(1) The Cauvery.—This river forms the northern and eastern boundary of the afforested taluks, but the feeders derived from the forests are insignificant as might be expected from the open character of the growth.

The main affluent is the Gundila, which flows from the north of the Biligirirangams and falls into the Cauvery, a few miles from Kollégál town. This river feeds a number of important tanks. The chief drainage of this taluk is from a number of streams rising on the eastern slopes of the Biligirirangams and flowing northwards, the combined river being known as the Udutoraipallam.

The Pálár, known also from its windings as the Onbadunágampallam, is a considerable torrent during the rains. For a distance of 25 miles it forms the boundary between the Kollégál and Bhaváni taluks. It is fed partly from the hills of the Satyamangalam taluk about Gairmalam, Gájenúr, and Uggiyam, and partly from the Bargúr hills and the Katrimalai hills of the Bhaváni taluk.

The head-waters of a considerable stream, the Honhalle (or gold stream), which flows a few miles from Kollégál town, lie in the western part of the Satyamangalam forest tract; but the greater part of the course of this stream is in Mysore.

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A few streams run eastwards into the Cauvery from the various hills of Kollégál and Bhaváni, and a few run south into the Bhaváni river from the hills of Bhaváni and Satyamangalam taluks.

On the whole, however, it may be stated that the water-supply from the North Coimbatore forests is inconsiderable, owing to the fact that the proportion of evergreen forest is very small.

(2) The Bhaváni and Móyár rivers are most important; but, with the exception of a few considerable feeders from the Nílgiri slopes, the greater part of their water-supply is obtained from forests outside the district.

Among the objects of chase, in its wide acceptation, are elephants, bison, sambur, spotted deer, antelope, four-horned antelope, nilghai, barking deer, wild pig, tiger, panther, leopard, hunting leopard (shot near the junction of the Móyár and Bhaváni rivers and near Bandahalli in Kollégál), bear, wild dog, wolf, jackal, fox, otter, hare; and among birds bustard (rare), florican, pea-fowl, jungle-fowl, spur-fowl, painted spur-fowl, partridge, painted partridge, quail, rock grouse, duck, teal, woodcock, snipe.

The principal sources of revenue are grazing and sandalwood. Attempts have been made at artificial cultivation of sandalwood and there is still a plantation near Bailúr, about 50 acres in extent, which has cost a large sum of money to Government, but the growth in which has not been at all successful.

South Coimbatore Forests.—This division is sub-divided, for purposes of forest administration, into six ranges, viz., Túnakkadavu, Polláchi, Udamalpet, Méttuppálaiyam, Bolampatti and Shólakarai. In Palladam taluk there are no forests proper. In Coimbatore taluk the chief forests lie in the valley of the Bhaváni river, at the foot of the Nílgiris; and about the hill range to the south of the Nílgiris, known as Kurudimalai, or the Lambton's peak range; and about the hills which border the Bolampatti valley to the west of Coimbatore town.

These forests are not as a whole productive of first-class timber; there are, however, very fine blackwood (*Dalbergia latifolia*), véngai (*Pterocarpus marsupium*), and a few other good timber trees at the head of the Bolampatti valley; and there is fair forest on the southern slopes of the hills, facing the Wálayár railway station. At the foot of the hills at this place there is a small reserve, called the Shólakarai reserve, which has been experimented on for some years with fair success. The Malabar reserves, which adjoin the Shólakarai reserve, show a growth even more favourable, as they lie more to the west and get a slightly

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Description of the forests.

better rainfall. In the valley of the Bhavání above Méttuppálaiyam there is a fair stock of good timber, viz., blackwood (*Dalbergia latifolia*), véngai (*Pterocarpus marsupium*), &c., and the banks are lined with a very fine growth of venték (*Lagerstrœmia microcarpa*), and wild mango (*Mangifera Indica*). Hitherto these sources have not been worked owing to the difficulty of extracting the timber. An attempt is being made to restore the scrub jungle round Méttuppálaiyam by clearing the scrub and sowing castor-oil planted up with good species, such as véngai (*Pterocarpus marsupium*), tamarind (*Tamarindus Indicus*); margosa (*Melia azadirachta*), &c.

The preservation of the headwaters of the Nóyil river, which flows past Coimbatore town, has excited much local interest. The Bolampatti valley through which it flows was formerly a forest, and when Ward and Connor wrote (about 1820) was still in that condition. Year after year, however, cultivation has extended in this direction, and now all that can be done is to preserve the forest on the slopes of the hills, and a small portion left at the head of the valley. The hills are unfortunately very steep towards Coimbatore, so that the catchment area is small.

On the other side of these hills there is a wonderful tract of country forming the headwaters of the Bhavání river. The catchment area here is very open and favourable for receiving a large supply of water, and the dense forest which still exists to a great extent is well calculated to preserve the springs. Unfortunately the whole of this tract has been included in Malabar, though geographically part of Coimbatore; and a late decision has declared the larger part of it to be private property, so that within a measurable distance the water-supply of the Bhavání river may be seriously affected by the denudation of this huge tract, misnamed the Attappádi valley.

The most important part of the South Coimbatore forests lies to the south of the Polláchi and Udamalpet taluks on the Ánaimalais or elephant hills. These hills form merely a portion of a huge range which runs through Travancore, is barely separated from the Palnis, and joins the Western Ghauts.

The Ánaimalais lie between lat. 10° 14′ to lat. 10° 32′ N., and long. 76° 53′ to 77° 23′ E. They are bounded on the west by Malabar and Cochin hills, south by Travancore hills, and east by Madura. The main range has a direction from south-east to north-west. There is a secondary range eastward, separated by the Torakadavu valley; and to the eastwards again the hills become lower and the conformation more broken.

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Description of the forests.

The chief rivers running west are the Vadamalaiyár, the Sholaiyár, the Pálakadavu stream, and the Torakadavu stream, which all flow into Cochin rivers. The Torakadavu stream divides the main and secondary ridges of the Ánaimalais, and flows under another name past Ánaimalai village. Below Ánaimalai this river is joined by the Pálár, which rises on the eastern slopes of the secondary ridge. The united streams fall into the Ponnáni river, which drains part of Malabar.

The Amarávati river is of the greatest importance. The head-waters of this river are in the Anjanád valley, which formerly belonged, and geographically should belong, to Madras, but is now in Travancore. There are clearings for coffee in this valley. From the Ánaimalais proper there are important feeders of the Amarávati river.

The Ánaimalais are often roughly divided into the upper and lower ranges. The upper ranges have plateaux over 7,000 feet in height, and peaks over 8,000. These upper plateaux, and those connected with them in Travancore (which are really connected by natural conditions), have been estimated to contain an area of between 80 and 100 square miles. They are separated into blocks, and contain the most magnificent scenery. This very separation of one plateau from another by mighty chasms adds distinctive features to the view; while the contrast of rolling downs with dark evergreen forest gives a variety unknown on the Nilgiris.

These ranges contain undoubtedly much valuable timber; but it is so extremely difficult to work it out that the evergreen forest must be considered chiefly as a permanent cover for the headwaters of the various streams; and as a ground for supplying such products as cardamoms, dammer, honey, wax, turmeric and ginger.

The hills are inhabited by about 600 hillmen, comprising Puláiyans, Mudnkans and Kádans.

Proposals to throw open for coffee cultivation about 120 square miles of the evergreen forest on the lower portions of the hills, which have an average elevation of from 3,000 to 4,500 feet on the Cochin side of the watershed, are now under the consideration of Government; but however grand these ranges may be, and however suitable for European enterprise and habitation, the lower ranges will be always more important from a forest point of view. These contain the well-known teak belt. This belt lies at an altitude of from 1,500 to 3,000 feet, and formerly contained a most extraordinary growth. In a few inaccessible sites examples are still seen of the wonderful size which teak attained on these hills; the best example being a tract near the Pálakadavu river,

CHAP. XI. FORESTS. Description of the forests.

A tree was cut in the Tékkadi leased forest in 1895, which was 124 feet high and 23 feet in girth and which contained between five and six hundred cubic feet of workable timber. When engaged on the trigonometrical survey (about 1820), Ward and Connor mention that the growth of teak on these hills in general far surpassed anything they had seen elsewhere.

Captain F. C. Cotton of the Public Works Department was the first to suggest a systematic working of the Ánaimalai forest in 1847. Previously to this date a large supply of timber had been sent for the use of the Bombay dockyard, both from the Wálayár forests and from such parts of the Ánaimalais as were not claimed by Cochin and Malabar. Timber was at this time worked out in the most wasteful manner by contractors; and it was in consequence of the very graphic account given by Captain Cotton of the facts he had actually noted, of a loss sometimes of five-sixths of a tree, that the Board of Revenue suggested that a European officer should be put in charge.

In 1848 Captain Cotton was ordered to report "on the present "condition of the Ánaimalai forests, and the best mode of working "them." He did so in a long report, stating that there were large trees available in great number; he advocated girdling them, and using the saw as much as possible for converting them into planks. As a matter of fact, however, the old system of splitting the trees with wedges and trimming planks with the axe seems to have been resorted to in great measure, owing to the difficulty of obtaining sawyers.

Captain Cotton's proposals do not altogether savour of strict conservancy. His main idea seems to have been to utilize what was considered the almost unlimited wealth of the forest to the best advantage and with the least loss of material. The idea of the enormous resources of these forests is thus expressed by the Collector of Coimbatore in 1846:—"The teak forests of this "district are immense, and will admit of the supply of timber, *to* "*any extent*, of good and unexceptionable quality." Captain Cotton's theory was that teak cannot grow where teak has grown before, but that a rotation of crop was necessary; but how this rotation was to be effected he does not attempt to state.[3] In 1848

[3] There may be something in this theory, supposing teak to be an unmixed crop, but such it never is in the forests. It may be quite possible that unmixed plantations of teak, such as those at Nilambúr, will be found to deteriorate after one crop has been taken from the soil. In fact this contingency is always to be considered; as witness the evils incident to a young re-growth of Scots' fir, or the deterioration of the larch at Athol.

Lieutenant Michael was appointed Captain Cotton's assistant, and he and Lieutenant Douglas Hamilton continued in charge till the Madras Forest Department was formed under Dr. Cleghorn.

Description of the forests.

Although conservancy was, of course, to some considerable extent carried on during the European control from 1848, yet it was practically admitted some years ago that the forests had been overworked and all felling operations were suspended for some years. That this precaution was advisable is seen from the scarcity of teak of large dimensions; and the want of systematic treatment under regular working plans is seen from the fact that a regular gradation of ages in the growing stock is not established.

The question of roads was early insisted on by Captain Cotton, and Lieutenant Michael began a system which his successors perfected. Some of these roads have naturally fallen out of repair while the forest was not worked.

Elephants were much used in dragging timber, which was in most cases shot down a slip and carted from the foot of the hills to a convenient point on the Ponnáni river, generally to Mungarah, whence it was floated to the west coast for shipment to Bombay. The timber slip was not perfect, and an attempt was made some years ago by a forest officer to cover the face with a lattice work of bamboos which worked fairly. A further attempt with a paved slip has since been made and has been partially successful. It is now being improved and will no doubt prove a most effectual and economical means of transport.

An area of some 27 square miles of good teak forest is leased from the Nambidi of Kollangód, a Malabar proprietor. This lease was first made in 1867, but a fresh lease was executed in April 1887. By the terms of this lease the Government was allowed to enjoy the usufruct of the forest for a period of eighty years commencing from 1st April 1887, on payment of an annual rent of Rs. 2,500 for the first thirty-seven years and of Rs. 5,000 for the remaining forty-three years. The right of renewing the lease for further periods of eighty years at the option of Government was also secured. The proprietors are allowed certain rights of way into the forest to enable them to remove timber, bamboos, &c., from the adjacent lands belonging to them. They are also entitled to all elephants captured or ivory found upon the premises or to the fair market value thereof.

A glance at the receipts from the Ánaimalai range, and lately from the South Coimbatore division, will show how valuable these teak forests have been, since the greater part of these receipts was from the sale of teak. But in addition to teak we find most of

CHAP. XI. FORESTS. Description of the forests.

the timbers usually found in deciduous forests of a similar elevation, notably blackwood (*Dalbergia latifolia*), véngai (*Pterocarpus marsupium*), vellai nágai (*Anogeissus latifolia*), karamatti (*Terminalia tomentosa*), ventêk (*Lagerstræmia microcarpa*), various *Acacias and Albizzias, Gmelina arborea*, *Vitex altissima*, and many other valuable timber trees.

The revenue from minor forest produce has always been rather a bone of contention and has never been very large. Even so early as Captain Michael's time, the question of allowing the regular hillmen a certain right to the produce was mooted, and an attempt was made to get them out of the hands of petty contractors. Lately this theory has been developed, and a principle adopted some years ago seemed to work well of allowing only certain licensed contractors into the forests, who were bound to pay not less than a fixed minimum price for each article of produce. On the other hand the hillmen were bound to sell the produce only to these licensed contractors. The present system is to lease out the whole of the produce to contractors for a lump sum annually.

The chief minor produce on the Ánaimalais consists of cardamoms (*Elettaria cardamomum*), turmeric (*Curcuma longa*), other species of *curcuma*, honey and wax, soap-nuts (*Sapindus emarginatus*), soap-bean (*Acacia concinna*), myrobalans (*Terminalia chebula and bellerica*), and numerous other fruits.

Ánaimalai tramway.

The Ánaimalai tramway is an important feature of the forests of South Coimbatore, and a brief account of it is accordingly given. The site of the tramway is on the lower slopes of the Ánaimalai hills, and is about 42 miles by road from Pódanúr railway station, of which road the last 4 miles is up and down a steep ghát rising in all to about 1,000 feet above the plains, which are here about 1,100 feet above sea-level. The tramway runs from the top of this ghát downwards into the interior of the Tékkadi leased forest, and the ghát has still to be negotiated by carts, pending the construction of a slip, which is now being tried. There is an ample supply of wood in the neighbourhood, but the demand is limited, and up to this has been restricted to the best class of timber only. The locality is very feverish and water scarce for the first six months of the year, and it is not easy to obtain labour nor to maintain the forest establishment there. On account of these disadvantages the tramway has had unusual difficulties to contend with, and has not been used to its full capabilities.

The plant consists of seven miles of portable railway suitable for animal power, with steel rails, steel corrugated sleepers and wrought steel chains riveted on full width of sleepers, 14 lb. per yard rails with 2 feet gauge, five crossings, one portable turn-table,

CHAP. XI. FORESTS. Ánaimalai tramway.

3 feet in diameter, one weighing machine 3½ feet square, and 36 waggons. The plant is simple, well-made and easily put together. The rails come out separately from the sleepers into which they fit, but no difficulty is experienced in putting them together nor in fitting together the trucks. The rails and sleepers and trucks appear to stand any amount of rough usage, and the line can be easily shifted from place to place.

When the tramway was laid innumerable difficulties cropped up on account of the steepness of the road, the gradient being in some places as high as 1 in 7. These difficulties were, however, got over in the end, and the line was laid and traffic started in 1889. At first the full length of 7 miles was laid, but the ghát portion of the line was found to be too steep and with too many curves. It was therefore taken up again. The length of the present line is about 5 miles 200 yards and it connects a place called Sangam in the Tékkadi leased forest with the 'Top Slip Depôt,' situated on the top of the outer slopes in the dip formed between the hills known as Pandáramalai and Kolambumalai.

At first bullocks seemed unsuitable and the Government elephants were used to drag the loaded trucks; but the track was too steep for elephants and as time went on bullocks were resorted to again and it was found that once the animals got accustomed to the work they did it very well.

Judged by the financial results, the tramway does not compare favourably with carts. It has been calculated that the actual working of the tramway during the four years 1889–90 to 1892–93 has resulted in a loss of Rs. 16,633 in comparison with cartage. In this comparison, however, the cost of construction of the permanent way has been included in the sum upon which depreciation has been calculated, and interest has been calculated on the previous year's balance and not on that of the current year in which it was charged. Even if sufficient allowance be made for these errors, there still remains a loss. It must, however, be remembered that the tramway has these advantages over carts, viz., that it is capable of turning out a much larger stock of timber in a given time with far less trouble, that larger logs can be removed, and that many inferior timbers can now be brought out at a profit, which were not worked before. These are matters of importance in a place where owing to fever the working season is so short and carts are scarce.

Extent of forests.

On the 30th June 1894 there were 1,404 square miles of reserved forests and 924 square miles of reserved lands. Most, if not all, of the latter will eventually become reserved forests. Polláchi and Udamalpet, in the southern parts of which are situated the Ánaimalais, have the largest area of forest land, but

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Extent of forests.

in Kollégál, Erode and Satyamangalam there are over 100,000 acres. There is 0·77 of an acre of forest land to each inhabitant of the Government villages, and there are about 73 head of cattle and 92 sheep or goats to every hundred acres.

A working plan for the Shólakarai reserve was prepared in 1885; its provisions have been strictly adhered to, and the result is most satisfactory. A working plan for the Chinnár reserve in the Bolampatti valley has also been prepared and is being carried out to certain extent. Another working plan has been prepared for the Ódânturai reserve and a fourth for Áyirangâl. No regular working plans have yet been formed for other reserves in the district, but the data required for their preparation are now being collected.

Forest revenue and expenditure.

The financial aspect of the Government forests of the district is shown in the marginal statement. During the last five years the forests have yielded a net revenue of Rs. 4,07,142. The chief sources of income are the sale of firewood, minor forest produce, bamboos, sandalwood and timber and fees for grazing. About two-fifths of the expenditure is on establishments, and the rest is incurred for the extraction of forest produce, the protection of the forests from fire and the construction of roads, buildings, &c. The permanent establishment consists of two District Forest officers, and usually one or two Assistant Conservators for training, eight Rangers and 15 Foresters, besides 60 Forest Guards, and the clerical staff and peons.

Year.	Receipts.	Expenditure.
	RS.	RS.
1889–90 ...	1,54,477	95,976
1890–91 ...	2,04,974	1,20,551
1891–92 ...	2,18,851	1,28,125
1892–93 (April 1892 to June 1893).	2,49,573	1,35,306
1893–94 ...	1,86,475	1,27,250
TOTAL ...	10,14,350	6,07,208

Forest offences.

Considerable difficulty has been experienced in the efficient protection of the State forests, and the number of offences against forest laws shows a large increase during the past five years. Much of this increase, however, is probably more apparent than real, and the advance in the number of cases may be ascribed to the yearly improvement in the protection of the forests. More than half the cases are compounded for a money payment by the offenders.

Offences against forest laws.

1889–90	144
1890–91	481
1891–92	629
1892–93 (April 1892 to June 1893).	767
1893–94	639

CHAPTER XII.

SALT AND ABKÁRI REVENUE.

CHAP. XII. SALT.

NOT being a maritime district, there is no sea salt manufacture. The district draws its supply of salt (1) from the factories on the East Coast, principally the group of factories round Ennore and Covelong in the Chingleput district, Cuddalore in the South Arcot district, Negapatam and Védáranyam in the Tanjore district, and Levingepuram (Tuticorin) in the Tinnevelly district; and (2) from Bombay *viá* Calicut. Salt educed in the process of the refinement of crude saltpetre was also used to a very small extent prior to the passing of Madras Act I of 1882 (which has been superseded by the present Madras Act IV of 1889). The quantity of salt imported into the district by rail in 1894–95, was about 400,000 Indian maunds, of which about one half came from the Chingleput factories, while 115,000 maunds came from Bombay. This Bombay salt seems to hold the field in Coimbatore town, but at most places Madras salt competes with it with considerable success, as the relative quantities of the imports show.

The only offences against the salt laws relate to the illicit possession of salt educed in the process of making or refining saltpetre from the alkaline earths which are common in the district. The number of offences reported was 125 in 1893, but it fell to 33 only in 1895.

Saltpetre.

Closely connected with the administration of the salt revenue is the manufacture of saltpetre, which is carried on to a considerable extent. Crude saltpetre is obtained by a very primitive process; the refined variety is obtained from the crude form by crystallization. For both processes a license is required, control being necessary to prevent the evasion of the salt tax. The number of crude saltpetre works and refineries, the licenses for which were in force on the 31st March 1896, was 1,043 and 14, respectively. The quantity of refined saltpetre produced in the refineries in the same year was 4,847 maunds, and of salt educed 5,030 maunds. No information is available as to the quantity of crude saltpetre produced, but 12,328 maunds were purchased in 1895–96 by refiners.

ABKÁRI. History.

The people of the district have always been addicted to the use of intoxicating liquors, so much so that Tippoo ordered that all liquor shops should be abolished and toddy-producing trees cut down. The policy of the British Government has been to combine

CHAP. XII. ABKÁRI. History.

revenue considerations with a primary regard for morality by heavily taxing the consumption of a detrimental luxury which could not be entirely suppressed, and is summed up in the phrase 'the maximum of revenue with the minimum of consumption.' The privilege of sale of country liquors was, from the commencement of the century, treated as a monopoly and let to farmers. Regulation I of 1808 sanctioned an alternative mode, viz., that of licensing outstills, the system adopted in Bengal; but it was not introduced into this district, as, in the opinion of the then Revenue Board, the interests of public order, morality and revenue were better served by entrusting the liquor supply of the country to men of respectability than to numerous petty dealers whose proceedings could not be carefully watched. This regulation did not contain any provisions for regulating the sale of toddy, but the right of sale of this liquor continued, nevertheless, to be farmed out along with country spirits. Regulation I of 1820 rescinded Regulation I of 1808, and provided rules for the sale of toddy; and was in its turn replaced by Madras Acts III of 1864 and V of 1879, and these again were repealed by Madras Act I of 1886, which is still in force.

Systems—*Arrack.*

The abkári revenue is derived (1) from the tax on arrack, (2) from the tax on toddy, and (3) from fees levied on licenses for the sale of European liquors and country-brewed beer, and from a variety of other fees, such as wholesale licenses, distillery licenses, warehouse licenses, refreshment-room licenses, &c.

Until 1875 the arrack and toddy farms were leased out conjointly, usually by taluks, for triennial periods. From 1859–60 to 1869–70, however, the whole district was leased out in one farm to induce large capitalists to take up the business, but, as the plan did not answer, the taluk farms were reverted to at the end of that period. Until 1850 the selection of renters was made on a consideration of tenders received and subsequently of bids made at open auctions. The renter paid a fixed rent and could sell any quantity of liquor or further the sale of one kind of liquor at the expense of another, *e.g.*, arrack at the expense of toddy. The only restriction imposed on him was that he should not sell below certain minimum rates fixed by the Board, but even this was practically inoperative, as the minimum rates were fixed without any reference to the strengths of liquor sold. The privilege of sub-renting almost every shop was availed of by the renters, and practically every petty shopkeeper had a still. Under this system Government had no means of gauging the consumption of liquors, of regulating the taxation, and controlling the traffic so as to secure the object now aimed at, viz., 'the maximum of revenue with the minimum of consumption.' The farming system had accordingly in 1875–76 to give way to what was called the 'improved excise system.' Under

Systems—*Arrack.*

this system the exclusive privilege of manufacture and sale of country spirits for the whole district was assigned to a contractor selected by tenders after public notification. Distillation was permitted only at the head-quarters of the district, at which sufficient guard and gauging establishments were maintained at the contractor's expense. The revenue was taken in the shape of an excise duty on each gallon issued at rates defined with reference to strength, and to guard against the contractor giving his attention only to the easily-managed portions of his farm, neglecting the outlying parts, it was stipulated that he should guarantee a minimum revenue. In addition to the duty leviable at the distillery, a surcharge of duty was made on liquor sold in shops within the limits of certain towns, where the consumption of liquor is high and the drinking classes can afford to pay a higher duty than the rural population. The contractors were bound to keep accounts of receipts and disbursements and of manufacture and issue of liquors, to see that a sufficient number of hydrometers were supplied to the shops for testing the strength sold so as to check dilution, to sell liquor only at the prescribed strengths, and at prices between certain maximum and minimum limits, to use proper measures, and to allow inspection of premises by officers of Government. The excise duty was at first fixed at Rs. 1-12-0 and subsequently raised to Rs. 2. The contractor was expected to maintain the necessary establishment for the detection and suppression of illicit traffic in liquor. The toddy farms were separated from those of arrack, as it was found that the tendency was for contractors to extend the sale of arrack at the expense of toddy, which is considered the more wholesome beverage.

The increase in the excise duty levied, and the heavy charges incidental to centralized manufacture, tended to enhance the prices of liquor and decrease consumption. This, of course, would not have been a regrettable result, if unaccompanied by an increase in illicit traffic, but on this question there are no data for forming an accurate judgment, as Government did not, till Madras Act I of 1886 came into force, maintain any special establishments for the detection and prevention of illicit practices, but depended on the contractor doing the needful in this direction to protect his own interest. Nine years' actual experience showed that the working of the 'improved excise system' was not in all respects satisfactory, principally by reason of the too great size of the farms for men without local experience, undue economy in management, and insufficient attention to the needs of outlying tracts. The minimum revenue guaranteed was intended to check the tendency to work only the easier areas, but as only large capitalists could take up the farm and give the necessary security, the competition for

CHAP. XII. ABKÁRI. Systems—*Arrack*.

the farms was not effective, and the minimum revenue was kept at a low level. The rates of duty and the maximum and minimum prices were fixed to a great extent on hypothetical data and did not admit of the liquor being sold at prices sufficiently low to cope with illicit distillation. In fact the excise system was found to be as rigid and inelastic as the previous farming system was lax, and a change, in the direction of allowing free play to natural influences in determining the prices of liquor with reference to the circumstances of each locality, was felt to be needed. A committee was appointed by Government in 1884 to consider the question, and on their recommendations very considerable changes were made in the system. The privilege of manufacturing country spirits was separated from that of sale; the total revenue derivable by Government being taken partly in the shape of a still-head duty on liquor issued from distilleries fixed sufficiently low to meet the circumstances of all parts of the farms, and partly in the shape of fluctuating rents obtained by leasing out the privilege of sale. The right of manufacture and supply for the whole district was assigned as a monopoly, the privilege of sale being sold by taluk areas or even smaller divisions; the vendors were bound to get their liquor from the monopoly distillers, who paid to Government a still-head duty. The taluk vendors established the shops for retailing the liquor, except in the town of Coimbatore where separate licenses for shops were sold by Government, the interference of the taluk vendor being limited to supplying the shopkeepers with liquor at prices not exceeding a prescribed maximum limit. The shopkeepers were practically allowed to sell at any prices they thought fit. In 1886–87 the above system was abandoned for that known as the 'private distillery supply system.' Under this there is no exclusive privilege of manufacture or supply. Licenses for distilleries for manufacturing and supplying, and for private warehouses for supplying, spirits are granted on payment of the prescribed annual fee (Rs. 100 for a distillery and Rs. 50 for a warehouse) to any respectable person who is prepared to provide suitable buildings and to conform to the prescribed conditions. The privilege of sale is separately sold as before, but the shops are sold separately throughout the district. The excise duty is Rs. 4–6–0 per gallon of proof spirit and Rs. 3–1–0 for spirit 30 degrees under proof. In addition to this duty the shopkeepers pay from 10½ annas a gallon for spirit 30 degrees under proof.

Arrack is distilled solely from jaggery, chiefly palmyra jaggery, aided by the bark of velvél (*Acacia leucophlœa*); one maund (25 lb.) of jaggery is estimated to produce two gallons of ordinary spirit 30 degrees under proof.

CHAP. XII. ABKÁRI.

Systems—*Toddy.*

The revenue on toddy was formerly obtained by the annual sale to the highest bidder of the right to sell the beverage in each taluk. Subsequently the farms were reduced in size and what is known as the tree-tax system has been established in the greater portion of the district. Under this system a yearly or half-yearly fee is charged for every tree tapped for toddy. Licenses are issued on the application of a shopkeeper or renter, but a minimum number of trees (generally fifteen) must be applied for before a license will be issued. The tax is Re. 1 a year for each palmyra or date palm and Rs. 1-8-0 per half year for a cocoanut.

This system is at present in force in the whole of the district except the Kollégál taluk and the Tálavádi firka of the Satyamangalam taluk; in these latter tracts there is no fee for tapping and only the right of vend is sold. In all taluks the number of shops for the sale of toddy is limited and their location cannot be altered except with the Collector's sanction. The shops are sold separately throughout the district.

The toddy drunk is usually that of the cocoanut tree, but palmyra toddy is also consumed. The latter is chiefly drawn from November to May; cocoanut toddy is drawn all the year round.

Foreign liquor.

The revenue from the sale of foreign liquor is derived from rentals determined by auction in the case of tavern licenses (*i.e.*, licenses for the retail sale of foreign liquor to be consumed on the premises) and from fixed fees in the case of licenses for hotels, refreshment-rooms, wholesale shops and shops where the liquor is not to be drunk on the premises. Country-spirits excised at the rate of duty leviable on imported spirits are treated as foreign spirits.

Opium.

The monopoly of the retail sale of opium and of the manufacture and sale of intoxicating drugs prepared from opium is sold by auction on the farming system, and the farmers either import the drug themselves or obtain it from licensed importers. A license to import is granted by the Board of Revenue on the recommendation of the Collector, and the consignment on arrival in the district is checked by some responsible revenue officer before being passed for sale to farmers and licensed vendors.

Hemp drugs.

There is no restriction on the possession and transport of intoxicating drugs made from the hemp plant, but only persons licensed by the Collector are permitted to sell them. The number of licenses to be issued in each district is fixed annually by the Board of Revenue on the recommendation of the Collector, and the licenses as thus determined are then sold by public auction.

Shops.

The number of arrack shops has fallen from 732 in 1888-89 to 536 in 1892-93. Each shop has now to supply an area of 14·7

CHAP. XII. ABKÁRI. Shops.

square miles containing a population of 3,740 persons, the average for the presidency being an area of 10·2 square miles and a population of 2,866. The number of toddy shops was 1,120 in 1888–89, but it had fallen to 946 in 1892–93. The area to each shop is 8·3 square miles against the presidency average of 6·5 square miles, and the mean population is 2,119, which is 289 more than the provincial average. The number of shops for the sale of opium and intoxicating drugs has been almost stationary and is now 21.

Consumption.

The statistics of consumption are imperfect, as no record is kept of the quantity of toddy drunk, and in Coimbatore toddy is the favourite drink with most of the labouring classes. The consumption of arrack during each of the five years ending with 1892–93 is shown in the appended statements. In 1891–92 there was a great fall in the quantity consumed, which was evidently due to the unfavourable character of the season. The average annual consumption per head of the population is about one-fiftieth of a gallon of spirit of proof strength, which is much smaller than the rate found in most other districts of the presidency. The figures for the several taluks exhibit striking differences. In Coimbatore, Karúr and Kollégál, the average is high, being about one-fortieth of a gallon, while in Bhaváni and Polláchi it is less than one-hundredth of a gallon. The quantity of opium and its preparations sold during the five years ending with 1892–93 was about 600 pounds per annum or about ·012 of a tola per head of the population. Statistics of the consumption of intoxicating drugs are not available, but the amount is known to be very small.

Revenue.

The total abkári revenue of the district, including the revenue from opium and intoxicating drugs, is 5¾ lakhs of rupees, of which 2¼ lakhs are derived from arrack, 3¼ lakhs from toddy, Rs. 16,000 from foreign spirits and Rs. 6,000 from opium, and the rest from various miscellaneous sources. The incidence of arrack revenue is 1 anna and 10 pies per head, while that of toddy is 2 annas and 7 pies, or a total of 4 annas and 5 pies. The retail price of liquor fluctuates a good deal, but it is probably not more on an average than 25 per cent. in excess of the tax, so that the 'drink bill' of the district comes to about 5½ annas per head per annum. This is trifling when compared with the expenditure on intoxicating liquors in the United Kingdom, which was estimated to be £3–12–3 per inhabitant in 1893.

Offences.

The number of offences against abkári laws shows a steady increase during the five years ending with 1892–93. The number reported in the last year was 1,365 and the proportion of convictions obtained was so high as 96 per cent. The offences consist

for the most part of cases of illicit distillation of arrack, possession and sale of illicit spirits, illicit manufacture of toddy, and illicit transport and unlicensed sale of spirits and toddy.

Offences.

Salt and Abkári establishments.

A combined agency for the prevention of offences against the salt and the abkári laws is now employed in the district, as is the case everywhere throughout the presidency. For administrative purposes the district is divided into three circles, Coimbatore, Bhaváni and Erode, each in charge of an inspector, assisted by a number of sub-inspectors, petty officers and peons. The annual cost of the total preventive force employed in the district is Rs. 64,536.

Statistics.

Statement showing the Abkári Revenue of the Coimbatore District for the five years 1888–89 *to* 1892–93.

Year.	Revenue derived from					
	Arrack.	Toddy.	Foreign spirits.	Miscellaneous.	Opium.	Total.
	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.
1888–89 ...	2,32,190	3,02,113	4,834	503	4,800	5,44,440
1889–90 ...	2,36,268	3,03,497	34,897	1,246	4,625	5,80,533
1890–91 ...	2,63,611	3,23,797	16,861	1,663	5,676	6,11,608
1891–92 ...	1,99,978	3,37,079	11,158	4,953	7,965	5,61,133
1892–93 ...	2,01,503	3,44,976	13,582	3,931	6,415	5,70,407
TOTAL ...	**11,33,550**	**16,11,462**	**81,332**	**12,296**	**29,481**	**28,68,121**
AVERAGE ...	**2,26,710**	**3,22,293**	**16,266**	**2,459**	**5,896**	**5,73,624**

Statement showing the sales of Arrack, &c., in Shops.

Year.	Number of shops.			Quantity of arrack sold.				Quantity of opium and its preparations sold.
	Arrack.	Toddy.	Opium, intoxicating drugs, &c.	20 degrees under proof.	30 degrees under proof.	60 degrees under proof.	Total reduced to proof strength.	
	NO.	NO.	NO.	GALS.	GALS.	GALS.	GALS.	LBS.
1888–89 ...	732	1,120	25	35,879	24,920	...	46,148	470
1889–90 ...	586	1,044	24	32,895	22,692	...	42,201	640
1890–91 ...	560	938	24	28,825	24,276	...	40,053	529
1891–92 ...	478	945	24	21,619	14,951	...	27,760	611
1892–93 ...	536	946	21	26,296	14,852	...	31,433	750
TOTAL ...	**2,892**	**4,993**	**118**	**145,514**	**101,691**	...	**187,595**	**3,000**
AVERAGE ...	**578**	**999**	**24**	**29,103**	**20,338**	...	**37,519**	**600**

CHAPTER XIII.

INCOME-TAX AND STAMP REVENUE.

CHAP. XIII. INCOME-TAX.

Revenue.

THE revenue from the tax on incomes shows a steady increase during the last five years. In 1888–89 the number of persons assessed to the tax was 1,533, and the assessment levied on them amounted to Rs. 33,575. In the following year the number of assessees rose to 1,659, and the amount of the tax advanced by Rs. 2,381. The figures for 1890–91 show a marked increase in the number of assessees as well as in the amount of the tax. Since then there has been a steady increase in both, and in 1892–93 the number of persons finally assessed was 2,097, the amount paid by them being Rs. 48,619.

Year.	Amount of tax.	
	Number assessed.	Total assessment.
		RS.
1888–89 ...	1,533	33,575
1889–90 ...	1,659	35,956
1890–91 ...	1,880	41,037
1891–92 ...	1,973	43,452
1892–93 ...	2,097	48,619

Incidence of the tax.

In 1892–93 one person in every 956 of the district population was assessed against one in 577 for the presidency as a whole exclusive of the capital town. It should be remembered in considering these figures that incomes derived from agriculture are not taxable, and that agriculturists form 58·67 per cent. of the total population. The incidence of the tax was 4·7 pies per head, the average for the presidency, exclusive of the capital town, being 8·2 pies. If the incidence of income-tax can be taken as a measure of the wealth of a district, then only two districts in the presidency, viz., Ganjám and South Arcot, are poorer than Coimbatore. In the adjoining district of Salem the average incidence per head of population is slightly under 5 pies.

Calculating the incidence on the actual number of tax-payers, it is found that the tax per head of assessee in Coimbatore amounts to Rs. 23–2–11, the average for all districts being Rs. 24–14–7.

We may next take only the tax on the general population, *i.e.*, exclude from account the incomes of companies, servants of Government, local bodies, &c., and incomes derived from public

CHAP. XIII. INCOME-TAX.

Incidence of the tax.

securities. On this basis the incidence of the tax is 3 pies per head. The incidence varies a good deal in different taluks as shown below :—

Taluk.	Incidence per head of population.			Incidence per head of assessee.		
	RS.	A.	P.	RS.	A.	P.
Bhaváni ...	0	0	2·0	21	12	2
Coimbatore ...	0	0	6·1	28	9	7
Dhárápuram ...	0	0	2·1	15	3	0
Erode ...	0	0	1·6	16	0	0
Karúr ...	0	0	3·2	19	4	0
Kollégál ...	0	0	4·6	14	3	10
Palladam ...	0	0	2·9	19	2	7
Polláchi ...	0	0	1·0	14	15	0
Satyamangalam ...	0	0	1·7	13	0	3
Udamalpet ...	0	0	4·7	28	12	1
TOTAL ...	0	0	3·0	20	3	6

The incidence is very low in Polláchi, Satyamangalam and Erode.

There are altogether 1,568 assessees of this class (*i.e.*, assessed under part IV of the schedule), and of these 879, or 56·06 per cent., have incomes below Rs. 750, while 251 more have a yearly revenue of less than Rs. 1,000. This leaves 438 persons, or 27·93 per cent., with assessable incomes over Rs. 1,000, and of these again all but 78 have less than Rs. 2,000 a year. There are 62 persons with incomes between Rs. 2,000 and Rs. 5,000 a year, 10 with incomes between Rs. 5,000 and Rs. 10,000, five with incomes ranging from Rs. 10,000 to Rs. 20,000, and only one with an annual income of between Rs. 20,000 and Rs. 30,000. Put in a proportional form, 72·1 per cent. have taxable incomes below thousand rupees a year, 22·9 per cent. between one and two thousand rupees, 4·0 per cent. between two thousand and five thousand, 0·6 per cent. between five and ten thousand and 0·4 per cent. ten thousand rupees and over. These figures indicate the absence of great individual wealth, and the same feature is observed throughout the presidency.

Collection of the tax.

The tax is collected without much difficulty and without hardship to the tax-payers. In 1888–89, 687 persons failed to pay the tax within the time allowed, but only 16 defaulters neglected to pay after receipt of a formal notice of demand, and in no year did the number of defaulters at this stage exceed 19, while the amount of the arrears was a little under Rs. 200. The number of initial defaulters during the last five years shows a steady increase, the number in 1892–93 being 1,148, or 54·74 per cent. of the total

CHAP. XIII. INCOME-TAX. Collection of the tax.

number of assessees. Of the sum of Rs. 17,409 that had to be recovered by process in the same year, Rs. 16,938 were paid up on the mere presentation of demand notices in 881 cases, and no distraint notices were issued. In none of the five years was the property of defaulters actually sold for realization of the arrears due by them. The charges incurred in the collection of the tax were Rs. 74 in 1892–93, and this sum represents the commission paid to companies for collecting the tax payable by their servants. The total amount of the charges is only 0·15 per cent. of the assessment, as the collection is done by the ordinary Land Revenue establishment.

STAMP-REVENUE.

Statistics of stamp revenue are compiled for periods of three years, and the marginal statement shows the revenue for the three most recent periods. The receipts from this source exhibit a steady increase, the average annual income during the last triennial period being Rs. 2,89,703. Of this sum Rs. 1,50,428 is derived from court-fees and Rs. 1,37,862 from the sale of non-judicial stamps; the small balance of Rs. 1,413 consists of miscellaneous items.

Period.	Revenue.
	RS.
1884–85 to 1886–87	7,03,885
1887–88 to 1889–90	7,67,966
1890–91 to 1892–93	8,69,108

The incidence of stamp revenue per head of the population is 2 annas and 4 pies a year, and only in Ganjám, Vizagapatam, Anantapur, North Arcot, Salem and South Arcot is the incidence lower than this. The ratios to the population of income-tax and stamp revenue do not agree so closely as would be expected. The number of licensed stamp vendors in the district in 1892–93 was 170, or one to every 11,793 of the population and to every 46 square miles of area.

CHAPTER XIV.

SPECIAL FUNDS AND ENDOWMENTS.

UNDER the head of 'Special Funds' are included (1) the Village Service Fund, (2) The Cattle Pound Fund and (3) The Irrigation Cess Fund. These will be noticed *seriatim*. CHAP. XIV. SPECIAL FUNDS.

Before the introduction of the Village Cess Act (IV of 1864), village officers in the revenue and police departments were remunerated by fees, partly in money, partly in kind, paid by the ryots direct to the officers entitled to them. Much difficulty was often experienced in collecting the fees and it was, therefore, considered expedient to abolish all fees and substitute a money cess in their stead. Act IV of 1864 (Madras) was accordingly passed, authorizing Government to impose a money cess on all holders of land in districts or parts of districts to which the Act was extended. The proceeds of this cess were to be devoted to the payment of the village servants employed on revenue and police duties within the village or group of villages in which the cess was imposed. The Act was brought into force in the Coimbatore district in 1888, and the village cess was levied from fasli 1298. The Village Service Fund—Its origin.

The above Act has since been repealed by Madras Act IV of 1893. Under the latter, as under the former Act, a cess based on the land assessment and water-tax is levied in order to meet the cost of village service. The earlier enactment was so worded as to imply that the cess could be levied only in lieu of any fees, contributions and allowances that might have been recognized by local custom as payable to village officers. The present Act, while providing for the levy of a cess in all areas whether or not the payment of fees to village servants had previously been a matter of custom, provides that a uniform rate of cess shall be imposed throughout the area to which the Act is applied. This rate is determined from time to time by Government so as to cover when taken with other receipts, the probable annual expenditure; it is also provided that in no case should the charge on this account exceed one anna in every rupee of assessment and water-tax. The other receipts above alluded to, are chiefly made up of Government contributions equal in amount (as provided likewise by law) to the cess collections. The proceeds of the cess and the contributions from general revenues constitute the fund for the remuneration of

CHAP. XIV. SPECIAL FUNDS.

village servants in the ryotwári tracts of the presidency. This remuneration is on a fixed and uniform scale, applicable, with but slight variations, to all districts. The new Act was brought into force from 1st October 1893.

Receipts and charges of the fund.

The marginal table gives statistics of the receipts and charges of the fund. The large increase in 1889–90 is due to the fact that the old Village Cess Act was in operation during the whole of that year, while in the previous year it was in force only during a portion of it. A very large proportion of the receipts is from the village cess, the receipts from this source amounting to Rs. 1,87,000 in 1892–93. The cess is collected along with the land revenue.

Year.	Receipts.	Charges.
	RS.	RS.
1888–89 ...	87,434	344
1889–90 ...	2,82,565	2,90,947
1890–91 ...	2,46,245	2,53,138
1891–92 ...	2,57,860	2,60,409
1892–93 ...	2,64,618	2,64,460

The expenditure is chiefly on account of the salaries of village servants. The balance to the credit of the fund on the 31st March 1893 was Rs. 75,420. The closing balance of 1888–89 was Rs. 93,146.

Revision of village establishments.

As a preliminary to the introduction of the Village Cess Act, the village establishments in the district were revised, the general principles on which the revision was based being as follows. The total number of Government and inám villages in the district was reduced by amalgamating the smaller ones to 812, of which 461 were single villages and 351 groups of villages. The inám villages were clubbed with the adjacent Government villages. The number of karnams was reduced from 990 to 860 and the number of munsifs from 1,154 to 814. Prior to the revision there were 1,690 talaiyáris, but the number was cut down at the revision to 1,531. The number of nírgantis was nearly doubled, while that of vettis was reduced by more than one half. The revised establishments were fixed with reference to the requirements of the several villages instead of solely with reference to the assets available in each. The lowest pay of the karnam and munsif was fixed at Rs. 6 and Rs. 5, respectively, and the highest at Rs. 15 and Rs. 10. The assistant karnam was allowed from Rs. 6 to Rs. 10 and the monigar from Rs. 5 to Rs. 8. The vettis, talaiyáris and nírgantis were to be paid uniformly at the rate of Rs. 3 per mensem.

The grading of the village establishments referred to above was based on the amount of the bériz or land revenue demand of the village. The subjoined statement shows the establishment allowed for each class or grade of villages :—

Revision of village establishments.

Grades.	Villages whose revenue demand is	Karnam.	Assistant karnam.	Munsif.	Monigar.				Vetti.		Total.		
					Rs. 8.	Rs. 7.	Rs. 6.	Rs. 5.	Number.	Pay at Rs. 3 each.	Number.	Monthly cost.	Annual cost.
		RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.		RS.		RS.	RS.
I	Rs. 16,000 and upwards.	15	10	10	8	7	6	5	5	15	12	76	912
II	Rs. 12,000 and under Rs. 16,000.	12	7	8	...	7	6	5	4	12	10	57	684
III	Rs. 8,000 and under Rs. 12,000.	10	6	7	...	...	6	5	3	9	8	43	516
IV	Rs. 4,000 and under Rs. 8,000.	8	...	6	...	...	...	5	2	6	5	25	300
V	Rs. 2,000 and under Rs. 4,000.	7	...	6	...	...	...	...	2	6	4	19	228
VI	Under Rs. 2,000 ...	6	...	5	...	...	...	...	1	3	3	14	168

One talaiyári was allowed for every village containing between 200 and 2,000 inhabitants, and an additional one for every additional 1,500 of the population or fraction of that number. A nírganti was given for villages with a wet áyakat of from 100 to 600 acres, and an extra one was allowed for every additional 500 acres or fraction thereof. The above scale had, however, to be departed from in the case of certain villages, the circumstances of which demanded a special treatment. In 16 villages it was necessary to allow an extra monigar to provide for the proper distribution of water from the channels and to take charge of the korambus or head-works for directing the river water into the channels where such korambus were situated at such a distance from the village that they could not be attended to by the ordinary staff; or where the work that the proper number of monigars had to do in collecting the assessment, which fell to their share, was considered to be so great that they had not time to look after the channel works. In one village also an extra nírganti was provided for the same purpose. In two towns two extra monigars were provided because the civil work in them was considered to be sufficient to occupy their time without leaving leisure for collection work. The village of Dhárápuram, the bériz of which is more than Rs. 23,000, was allowed a third karnam. Lastly, a separate talaiyári was allowed in the case of 23 villages, which had a population of less than 200 inhabitants each, on the ground that the inhabitants were subject to great danger from wild beasts.

The total annual cost of the village establishments, according to the revision, amounted to Rs. 2,60,448 against Rs. 1,34,020, the

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charge incurred on that account prior to the revision. The revised establishments were entertained from 1st January 1889.

The revision, however, is by no means complete, as several changes have since been found necessary.

Pound Fund.

The receipts and charges of the Pound Fund are shown on the margin. The average income from this source during the five years ending 31st March 1893 was Rs. 14,397, and the average expenditure during the same period amounted to Rs. 13,898. The balance to the credit of the fund at the end of the year was Rs. 6,657: the opening balance of 1888-89 was Rs. 4,168.

Year.		Receipts.	Charges.
		RS.	RS.
1888-89	...	13,457	13,704
1889-90	...	15,314	17,400
1890-91	...	16,368	13,605
1891-92	...	14,087	14,550
1892-93	...	12,758	10,232

The number of pounds rose from 611 at the beginning of the year 1889-90 to 634 in 1892-93. During the latter year 19 pounds were abolished, while 11 were newly opened: the total number of pounds at the end of the year thus fell to 626. Of these 467, or about 75 per cent., were in good repair, the corresponding proportion for the presidency as a whole being 79 per cent. Again, out of the total number of pounds 283, or 45 per cent., were provided with both feeding racks and water-troughs, but for the whole presidency the ratio is as high as 79 per cent. Lastly, 220 pounds, or about 35 per cent., are roofed structures, while for the presidency the ratio is 50 per cent.

Irrigation Cess Fund.

The only other special fund in the district is the Irrigation Cess Fund. It originated in a scheme proposed by the Collector in 1864 and 1865 and sanctioned by Government in G.O., No. 2810, dated 16th November 1865. It is levied only in the Erode, Satyamangalam, Karúr and Coimbatore taluks, at varying rates. The proceeds are applied to maintaining the water establishment, and to the construction and repair of temporary dams, &c.

The receipts from this fund amounted to Rs. 15,504 in 1892-93, and the charges to Rs. 18,933. Statistics for the last five years are given in the margin. The balance at the beginning of the year 1888-89 amounted to Rs. 26,196, while the closing balance of 1892-93 was Rs. 25,866.

Year.		Receipts.	Expenditure.
		RS.	RS.
1888-89	...	18,909	16,148
1889-90	...	21,247	17,898
1890-91	...	17,590	21,524
1891-92	...	23,121	19,437
1892-93	...	15,504	18,933

The public endowments in this district are either grants of money or endowments in land. Statistics of the extent of lands endowed are not available, but their value is estimated at Rs. 4,439; they are set apart for the support of choultries under private management. The amount annually granted for the support of religious institutions is Rs. 52,995. The endowments for charitable institutions are as follows:—

	RS.
10 Chatrams	1,526
1 Langarkhána	1,000
19 Dispensaries	2,873
3 Municipal chatrams	276
50 Local Fund chatrams	4,764
Total ..	10,439

It will be seen from the above statement that the Government contributes a sum of Rs. 5,040 annually towards the maintenance of 50 Local Fund chatrams and 3 municipal chatrams in the district. The origin of this grant is briefly as follows:—

It appears that during the time of the Collector, Mr. William Garrow, inám lands were set apart for the due maintenance and upkeep of the chatrams then actually built and open to travellers, as well as of those proposed to be thereafter built at certain localities. In 1850 the number of chatrams constructed by private individuals was thirty-one, endowed with inám lands assessed at Rs. 5,178. There were also forty-seven chatrams constructed by Government or made over to it by private individuals, and the annual assessment of the iníms originally allotted for these institutions amounted to Rs. 8,934. On the recommendation of the Collector, Mr. E. B. Thomas, the Government resumed all the inám lands to the value of Rs. 6,163 set apart for chatrams proposed to be erected at certain localities, but not actually built, as well as the ináms assessed at Rs. 8,934 granted for the chatrams under the management of Government. It, however, sanctioned the continuance of the inám lands to the reduced value of Rs. 4,439 for private chatrams and granted a money allowance of Rs. 4,630 for the Government chatrams in lieu of the resumed ináms. Of the 47 chatrams comprised under the latter head, those at Coonoor, Aravanghât, Barliyár and Ootacamund, which were endowed with an annual grant of Rs. 444, ceased to belong to this district on the constitution of the Nílgiris into a separate district in 1868, and the chatrams noted in the margin having fallen into decay, their grants were discontinued,

	RS.
Chatram at Únjalúr	84
Do. at Wálayár	108

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while those for the Tirruppúr and Nanniyúr chatrams were transferred to the chatram at Mandripálaiyam and Karúr respectively, so that the number of chatrams which remained and continued to receive the grant, amounting to Rs. 3,994, was 41. To this number were added twelve others which were allowed a sum of Rs. 1,008 per annum for their upkeep. On the chatram at Karappálaiyam falling into decay, its establishment costing to Rs. 84 was transferred to the Hássanúr chatram, and an increase of Rs. 38 was sanctioned to the chatram at Satyamangalam. Thus the total number of chatrams was 53, with an aggregate money allowance of Rs. 5,040. Of these, the two chatrams at Erode and the one at Karúr, with their endowments, were made over to the respective municipalities, while the rest were transferred to the Local Fund Board in 1871, on the distinct understanding that the endowments attached to them were also to be transferred with them.

The Langarkhána at Coimbatore is a very old institution. Until very recently it was maintained from the proceeds of certain inám lands in Mudavándi Satyamangalam village in the Erode taluk. The endowment was originally established by the Hindu kings, and subsequently confirmed by Tippoo, for the support of thirty-two cripples of the Vellála or agricultural caste in Erode and the adjacent taluks. The whole village of Mudavándi Satyamangalam in Erode was at first allotted to the institution upon a jódi or quit-rent of half the Government assessment; but on the district coming into the possession of the British Government, the village was resumed and the endowment was subsequently commuted for a grant of land to the value of half the revenue of the village, or Rs. 1,193–14–5 per annum, the proceeds to be enjoyed in shares by the thirty-two *mudavándis* or cripples and forty-two *káládis* or able-bodied men who were in attendance on them. In course of time, the original objects of the charity were neglected; the *káládis* dissipated the revenues, or alienated the lands, reducing the proper number of the recipients; and the *mudavándis* themselves, with the connivance of the village and taluk officers, took part in these frauds. The Collectors endeavoured to meet these evils by resuming the alienated portions of the ináms between the years 1837 and 1842; but the resumptions being imperfect, had no effect in actually checking the abuses. It was, therefore, proposed in 1850 that the lands should be finally resumed by Government, and that a sum equivalent to their annual average value devoted to the maintenance of a Langarkhána or alms-house, *mudavándis* or lame persons having the preference among claimants for relief. In order to save the cost of erecting a new building, a large tobacco godown in a central spot

near the present taluk office at Coimbatore was appropriated to the purpose, and the charity was ordered to be conducted for a term of years upon the actual receipts from the village year by year, the question of assigning a fixed money allowance being left for subsequent consideration. On the representation of the Board of Revenue in 1862, the Government modified this order and sanctioned the continuance of the inám lands originally allotted for the institution.

The management of this charitable institution was transferred to the Municipal Council of Coimbatore in 1871. For nearly sixteen years it continued to be supported by the proceeds of inám lands in Mudavándi Satyamangalam village in the Erode taluk, the revenues being collected without authority by the tahsildar of that taluk on behalf of the Coimbatore Municipal Council, and the provisions of Act II of 1864 being wrongly applied when necessary. The irregularity of this procedure was brought to the notice of Government in 1886, and the municipal council was asked to arrange for the collection of the inám revenue by private agency. The council urged that it would be put to considerable difficulty and expense by collecting through private agency, and the Government thereupon directed in 1887 the resumption of the inám and the disbursement to the council in lieu thereof of a net bériz deduction of Rs. 1,000 per annum.

There are no endowments for educational institutions or for the maintenance of irrigation works. Statistics of the grants made to Bráhmans are not available.

CHAPTER XV.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE.

CHAP. XV. Civil Justice. Civil Courts.

For some years after the district passed into the possession of the British, there were no regular Courts of justice established; the Collector disposed of all matters of a judicial nature, whether civil or criminal, arising within the district.

In 1806 a Zilla Court was established at Dhárápuram under Regulations II and III of 1802 with, however, very limited powers, and the judicial powers of the Collector were abolished. A Sudder Amín and Mufthi Sudder Amín's Courts were at the same time established. The Judge of the Zilla Court was assisted by Native Commissioners, and appeals lay from him to the Provincial Court at Trichinopoly. These Commissioners were empowered to hear suits up to Rs. 80, and were remunerated by fees at the rate of 1 anna per rupee on the value of the suits filed before them. In 1816 the Zilla and Pandit and Mufthi Sudder Amín's Courts were transferred from Dhárápuram to Coimbatore, and they continued up to 1822, when they were abolished and the district included within the jurisdiction of the Salem Court. It continued under this Court up to 1826. In 1827 a Court styled 'The Auxiliary Court,' presided over by an 'Assistant Judge,' was established under Regulations I and II of 1827, as also a Sudder Amín's Court, the Assistant Judge having the same civil powers as the Zilla Judge. The regular appeals from the original decisions of the Assistant Judge lay, in suits up to Rs. 1,000, to the Zilla Court at Salem, and in suits above 1,000 rupees to the Provincial Court at Trichinopoly.

The Sudder Amín assisted the Judge in disposing of appeals referred to him from the decrees of the Munsifs.

The 'Commissioners' Courts' were abolished by Regulation IV of 1816, and 'Munsifs' Courts' were established in their stead at Coimbatore, Udamalpet, and Chéyúr.

About 1828 the Zilla Court at Seringapatam having been abolished, Kollégál with one Munsif was added to the Coimbatore district.

Civil Courts.

In 1840 a Munsif's Court was established at Ootacamund, the civil administration of which was till then conducted by a Military 'Court of Requests.'

In 1843, when Act VII of 1843 was introduced, Bhaváni and Karúr, which till then had been subject to the Zilla Court of Salem, were transferred to this district with a Munsif's Court at each station, making in all seven Munsifs' Courts, viz., Coimbatore, Udamalpet, Chéyúr, Kollégál, Ootacamund, Karúr, and Bhaváni.

In 1866 the Bhaváni and Chéyúr Courts were abolished, and, in their stead, one Court was established at Erode.

By Act VII of 1843 the 'Auxiliary Court' was abolished and a 'Civil and Sessions Court' was established in its stead, as were also the Principal Sudder Amín's and Mufthi Sudder Amín's Courts in addition to the already existing Sudder Amín's Court, which was thenceforward styled the 'Hindu Sudder Amín's Court.' The Principal Sudder Amín's jurisdiction extended over suits up to Rs. 10,000 in value, and that of the other Courts up to Rs. 2,500.

About 1847 the 'Hindu Sudder Amín's Court' was abolished, in 1862 that of the Mufthi Sudder Amín, and in 1863 that of the Principal Sudder Amín.

A temporary Principal Sudder Amín's Court was established in 1864 for the purpose of clearing off arrears which had accumulated, and this again was abolished in 1865.

Another similar Court was established at Karúr in January 1873, and was in turn abolished in 1874.

The Principal Sudder Amín, whose Court was abolished in 1863, had criminal powers up to two years' imprisonment and a fine of Rs. 200, and the Mufthi and Hindu Sudder Amíns could dispose of cases punishable with six months' imprisonment. The Munsif's Court at Ootacamund was abolished in 1855, and a Principal Sudder Amín's Court was established in its stead. This was again converted into a Subordinate Judge's Court in 1858.

The latter Court continued up to 1863, the Sessions Judge of Coimbatore holding sessions there when necessary.

In 1863 the Sub-Court was abolished, and a 'Civil and Sessions Court' was established in its stead.

In 1868 the Nílgiris were constituted into a separate district and placed under a Judicial Commissioner. They were again included, for judicial purposes only, in the Coimbatore district by Madras Act II of 1881, and placed under a District Magistrate, who was constituted an additional Sessions Judge with power to try all offences not punishable with death or transportation for life. A Subordinate Judge was at the same time established with jurisdiction over the Nílgiri district, and with power to try small

CHAP. XV. CIVIL JUSTICE. Civil Courts.

causes up to Rs. 500. In 1873 the Civil and Sessions Court, established at Coimbatore under Act VII of 1843, underwent a change in designation, and is now called the District and Sessions Court.

At present the ordinary Civil Courts[1] in this district are of three grades: (1) Village Munsif's Court, (2) District Munsif's Court, (3) the District Court.

Village Munsifs.

The first are petty Courts presided over by officers called Village Munsifs. There are 819 Village Munsifs, of whom, on an average of five years (1888–92), 286 exercise civil jurisdiction, trying an average aggregate of 5,536 suits per annum; in 1892 the number was 5,821. Village Munsifs are appointed by the Collector, and were empowered by Regulation IV of 1816 to hear, try, and determine such suits as might be brought before them for the recovery of sums of money and other kinds of personal property, the amount or value of which did not exceed Rs. 10; but they were prohibited from taking cognizance of any suit for damages on account of personal injury and the like, or of suits in which they or their servants or dependents were personally interested, or in which the defendants were not actually resident within the limits of their jurisdiction. Madras Act IV of 1883 has raised the suit value to Rs. 20 and has otherwise affected the Village Munsifs' jurisdiction and procedure. As arbitrators they can determine suits up to a value of Rs. 200. Under Madras Act I of 1889, the pecuniary limit of jurisdiction is fixed at Rs. 20, or with the consent of both parties, at Rs. 200, and in certain cases the Village Munsif sits with two other villagers, one nominated by each party.

District Munsifs.

The District Munsifs' Courts were first constituted under Regulation IV of 1816, the nomination resting with the Zilla Judge, subject, however, to confirmation by the Provincial Court. Appointments to this post now rest with the High Court.

There are at present four regular District Munsifs in this district, viz., at Coimbatore, Udamalpet, Erode and Karúr. The Deputy Collector and Magistrate of Kollégál exercises also the powers of a District Munsif.

The present salaries of the District Munsifs are as follows:—

	RS.
First class	400
Second class	300
Third class	250
Fourth class	200

[1] A temporary Subordinate Judge's Court has since been established at Coimbatore. It commenced work on 1st July 1895.

The subjoined statement shows the jurisdiction of each District Munsif :—

District Munsifs.

Names of Courts.	Names of revenue taluks comprised within the jurisdiction of each Court.
Coimbatore	The whole of the revenue taluk of Coimbatore and the portion of the Palladam taluk lying to the south of the Madras Railway.
Erode	The revenue taluks of Erode and Bhaváni, part of the Palladam taluk except the portion lying to the south of the Madras Railway, and the portion of the Satyamangalam taluk lying below the gháts.
Kollégál	The whole of the Kollégál taluk and the portion of the Satyamangalam taluk not included in the jurisdiction of the Erode Munsif.
Udamalpet	The taluks of Pollâchi and Udamalpet and a portion of the Dhárápuram taluk.
Karúr	The taluk of Karúr, and the portion of the Dhárápuram taluk not included in the Udamalpet Munsif's jurisdiction.

District Munsifs have small cause powers (without appeal) in suits up to Rs. 50, and by Act III of 1873 they were invested with power to hear and dispose of suits up to Rs. 2,500 in value. All decrees passed in contested suits other than the small cause cases referred to above; and certain orders passed by them in execution are open to appeal before the District Court. They are expected to pass 20 decrees per mensem in contested regular suits, exclusive of the number they may pass in small cause suits.

District Court.

This is the principal Court of the district. To it lie the appeals from the decisions and orders of the District Munsifs and from certain judicial decisions passed by the Collector and his Assistants, and it has original jurisdiction in all suits brought for the recovery of real and personal property of a greater value than Rs. 2,500.

It has also the power to withdraw original suits from the file of subordinate courts and try them itself, or refer them to other subordinate courts competent to hear them.

There is no Sub-Judge[2] in the district proper, though there is one on the Nilgiris.

[2] See foot-note *ante*.

CHAP. XV. CIVIL JUSTICE. Revenue Courts.

The Collector and his Assistants in independent charge have also judicial functions under certain Acts, viz. :—

1. Regulation XII of 1816, which relates to—
   (a) claims to lands or crops, the validity of which depends on the determination of an uncertain or disputed boundary or land mark; and
   (b) disputes regarding the occupancy, cultivation and irrigation of land which may arise between zemindars and their ryots.
2. Regulation IX of 1822, relating to malversation on the part of public servants in revenue matters.

   Prosecutions under this regulation are rare now, offenders being generally tried under the Penal Code.
3. Madras Act III of 1895, which relates to the possession of, or succession to, hereditary village offices, and the emoluments pertaining thereto.
4. Madras Act VIII of 1865 (Rent Recovery Act).

Suits.

The following table[3] shows the number of civil suits instituted in each of the last five years :—

Year.	Ordinary and Summary Suits.		Small Causes.		Village Courts.	
	Number.	Value.	Number.	Value.	Number.	Value.
		RS.		RS.		RS.
1888 ...	3,092	9,74,636	3,295	1,79,472	5,743	Not known.
1889 ...	2,931	11,10,791	2,880	1,50,412	5,245	Not known.
1890 ...	2,703	6,66,233	3,306	1,77,328	5,112	Not known.
1891 ...	2,863	10,35,352	3,451	1,86,288	5,761	Not known.
1892 ...	3,528	10,76,791	4,265	2,26,857	5,821	Not known.
AVERAGE.	3,023	9,72,761	3,439	1,84,071	5,536	

The annexed statement gives details of the value of these suits.

[3] The statistics relating to Civil Justice include the figures for the Nílgiris as the latter cannot easily be separated. There are two civil courts in the Nílgiris, viz., the Court of the Sub-Judge at Ootacamund and that of the District Munsif at Gúdalúr. This District Munsifi is held *ex officio* by the Head Assistant Collector.

Statement showing the Value of Suits instituted in the several Courts of Coimbatore in the years 1888–1892.

Class of Court.	Year.	Ordinary and Summary Suits.												Small Causes.				
		Not exceeding Rupees								Exceeding Rs. 1,00,000.	Not estimable in money.	Total.		Not exceeding Rupees			Total.	
		50	100	500	1,000	2,500	5,000	10,000	1,00,000			No.	Value.	50	100	500	No.	Value.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
		NO.	NO.	NO.	NO.	NO.	NO.	NO.	NO.	NO.	NO.		RS.	NO.	NO.	NO.		RS.
District Judge's Court.	1888 ...	...	...	...	...	...	9	4	2	...	4	19	84,537	...	...	...	...	...
	1889 ...	...	...	...	...	1	12	2	8	...	1	24	2,34,365	...	...	...	...	...
	1890 ...	...	...	...	...	...	15	4	...	...	1	20	79,910	...	...	...	...	...
	1891 ...	...	...	...	1	...	9	2	6	...	1	19	2,72,597	...	...	...	...	...
	1892 ...	...	...	...	...	...	22	8	5	...	1	36	2,07,901	...	...	...	...	...
	AVERAGE.	...	...	...	...	...	**13**	**4**	**4**	...	**2**	**24**	**1,75,862**	...	...	...	...	...
District Munsifs' Courts.	1888 ...	497	813	1,249	217	89	...	...	...	...	52	2,917	6,61,347	2,031	521	342	2,894	1,38,204
	1889 ...	482	813	1,187	175	80	...	...	...	...	44	2,781	5,71,990	1,761	460	290	2,511	1,14,208
	1890 ...	500	749	1,070	153	75	...	...	...	...	45	2,592	5,26,280	1,955	535	301	2,791	1,30,743
	1891 ...	448	813	1,213	173	74	...	...	...	...	17	2,738	5,74,624	2,052	524	350	2,926	1,39,667
	1892 ...	469	1,053	1,523	208	91	...	...	...	...	22	3,366	6,95,720	2,562	651	405	3,618	1,68,120
	AVERAGE.	**479**	**848**	**1,249**	**185**	**82**	...	...	...	...	**36**	**2,879**	**6,05,992**	**2,072**	**538**	**338**	**2,948**	**1,38,188**

Statement showing the Value of Suits instituted in the several Courts of Coimbatore in the years 1888–1892—cont.

Class of Court.	Year.	Ordinary and Summary Suits.												Small Causes.				
		Not exceeding Rupees								Exceeding Rs. 1,00,000.	Not estimable in money.	Total.		Not exceeding Rupees			Total.	
		50	100	500	1,000	2,500	5,000	10,000	1,00,000			No.	Value.	50	100	500	No.	Value.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
		NO.	NO.	NO.	NO.	NO.	NO.	NO.	NO.	NO.	NO.		RS.	NO.	NO.	NO.		RS.
Revenue Courts.	1888 ...	61	13	6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	80	3,035	...	...	...	...	...
	1889 ...	38	8	5	1	1	...	...	...	...	...	53	6,132	...	...	...	...	...
	1890 ...	19	8	1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	28	1,151	...	...	...	...	...
	1891 ...	7	8	3	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	18	1,337	...	...	...	...	...
	1892 ...	20	6	6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	32	1,898	...	...	...	...	...
	AVERAGE.	**29**	**9**	**4**	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	**42**	**2,711**	...	...	...	...	...
Subordinate Judge's Court (Ootacamund).	1888 ...	3	7	29	18	7	5	3	4	...	...	76	2,25,717	152	112	137	401	41,268
	1889 ...	1	4	34	17	2	7	2	5	1	...	73	2,98,304	156	97	116	369	36,204
	1890 ...	4	7	19	20	8	4	...	1	...	...	63	58,892	193	170	152	515	46,585
	1891 ...	5	9	33	20	10	5	3	2	...	1	88	1,86,794	197	170	158	525	46,621
	1892 ...	2	14	45	20	7	3	1	2	...	...	94	1,71,272	257	192	198	647	58,737
	AVERAGE.	**3**	**8**	**32**	**19**	**7**	**5**	**2**	**3**	...	...	**79**	**1,88,196**	**191**	**148**	**152**	**491**	**45,883**
TOTAL	1888 ...	561	833	1,284	235	96	14	7	6	...	56	3,092	9,74,636	2,183	633	479	3,295	1,79,472
	1889 ...	521	825	1,226	193	84	19	4	13	1	45	2,931	11,10,791	1,917	557	406	2,880	1,50,412
	1890 ...	523	764	1,090	173	83	19	4	1	...	46	2,703	6,66,233	2,148	705	453	3,306	1,77,328
	1891 ...	460	830	1,249	194	84	14	5	8	...	19	2,863	10,35,352	2,249	694	508	3,451	1,86,288
	1892 ...	491	1,073	1,574	228	98	25	9	7	...	23	3,528	10,76,791	2,819	843	603	4,265	2,26,857
	AVERAGE.	**511**	**865**	**1,285**	**204**	**89**	**18**	**6**	**7**	...	**38**	**3,023**	**9,72,761**	**2,263**	**686**	**490**	**3,439**	**1,84,071**

CHAP. XV. CIVIL JUSTICE.

Suits.

The bulk of the suits are for money or moveables, and nearly all the original work is done in the Courts of the District Munsifs. The value of the subject-matter in the great majority of the suits is less than Rs. 100, and there are on an average only about 267 cases a year in which it exceeds Rs. 500. During the five years ending with 1892 the average population to a suit was 175, the average for the presidency exclusive of Madras being 150 and that for the whole presidency 136. The district appears to have contributed about 5 per cent. of the total litigation of the province. It is clear from the above figures that the population of Coimbatore is neither litigious, rich, nor commercial; that it does not borrow very much money or in large sums, or much beyond its means, and that much of its borrowing is of very petty sums by one ryot from another.

Appeals.

The District Court alone exercises appellate authority. During the last five years there were, on an average, 267 regular appeals and 20 miscellaneous appeals. The average annual disposals were 262 regular appeals and 20 of the others. At the end of 1887 there were 125 appeals pending, but at the close of the following year there were only 92; in 1889, 1890 and 1891 the numbers were, respectively, 81, 57 and 79, while at the end of 1892, there were no less than 162 appeals awaiting disposal. In 1892 the average duration of an uncontested appeal was 188 days and of a contested appeal 172 days; in 1888 the figures were 152 and 171 days respectively. The average annual number of appeals to the High Court is 12 for first and 56 for second appeals.

Receipts and Charges.

The receipts and charges of the civil courts in the district are shown in the marginal table. It will be seen that the courts more than pay their way, the average annual surplus being nearly 52,000 rupees. There are, however, certain items on the expenditure side, such as pensions, which are not included in the charges. More than half the annual income is derived from institution fees. The charges are practically all for salaries.

Year.	Receipts.	Charges.	Surplus.
	RS.	RS.	RS.
1888 ...	1,41,811	93,308	48,503
1889 ...	1,44,184	96,399	47,785
1890 ...	1,32,921	96,895	36,026
1891 ...	1,42,568	90,636	51,932
1892 ...	1,64,723	89,141	75,582
AVERAGE	1,45,241	93,276	51,965

CRIMINAL JUSTICE.

Courts.

The criminal courts in this district are of five grades, viz.:—(1) the courts of the village magistrates, (2) the courts of subordinate magistrates of the third class, (3) the courts of subordinate magistrates of the second class, (4) the courts of subordinate magistrates of the first class or full-power magistrates, (5) the Court of Session.

CHAP. XV. CRIMINAL JUSTICE. — Courts.

There are also benches of magistrates at some of the larger towns. These are always presided over by a stipendiary magistrate, and as a rule try only petty nuisance cases and the like. At some stations sub-registrars have been given magisterial powers for the disposal of similar cases; these are called Special Magistrates.

Village magistrates are empowered to take cognizance of complaints of petty theft where the value of the property stolen does not exceed one rupee, assault and abusive language. They have power to lodge a culprit in the village choultry for twelve hours, or to put him, if he is a low-caste man, in the stocks for six hours. Their chief use is, however, in assisting in the detection of crime.

Subordinate magistrates of the second and third classes exercise the powers entrusted to them under the Criminal Procedure Code, and the bulk of the original criminal work is done by them.

The tahsildar of every taluk has second-class powers, but except in Bhavání and Kollégál, he exercises them only occasionally, the work formerly done by taluk magistrates having in all other cases been transferred to stationary sub-magistrates, as they are called. There is also a deputy tahsildar at Aravakkuric'chi, Méttuppálaiyam, Kángayam, Gópichettipálaiyam, Avanási and Perundurai, who exercises magisterial powers; the taluk sheristadars of Bhavání and Kollégál are also invested with magisterial powers. There is thus at least one sub-magistrate at each of the following stations:—Aravakkuric'chi, Avanási, Bhavání, Coimbatore, Dhárápuram, Erode, Gópichettipálaiyam, Kángayam, Karúr, Kollégál, Méttuppálaiyam, Palladam, Perundurai, Pollachi, Satyamangalam and Udamalpet.

The magistrates of the first class are—

(a) The Magistrate of the district.
(b) The Joint Magistrate, who is always the Sub-Collector.
(c) The Head Assistant Magistrate, who is always the Head Assistant to the Collector.
(d) Such Assistant or Deputy Magistrates as have passed the prescribed tests and have been invested with first-class powers.

The jurisdiction of the magistrate of the district extends over every part of the district and over all the magistrates in it. Each of the other first-class magistrates mentioned above is in charge of a division of the district; he controls and supervises the work of the subordinate magistrates in that division and appeals from their decisions lie to him.

The Court of Session tries only cases committed to it by the magistracy. To it lie appeals from sentences passed by magis-

trates of the first class, and from the sentences of the Sessions Court an appeal lies to the High Court. A session is held on the first Monday in every month, and a special session immediately before the annual recess.

Courts.

Criminal cases.

The average number of cases instituted in criminal courts of all classes during each of the past five years was 6,964, and of this 5 598 were instituted in the courts of the subordinate stipendiary magistrates, 997 before benches of special magistrates, 284 before magistrates of the first class and 76 were trials at the sessions. The District Magistrate does little original work.

The marginal statement shows the percentage of persons convicted among persons brought to trial in each kind of court during the five years ending 1892. The cases that come before the benches and special magistrates are chiefly petty nuisance cases, and the percentage of conviction is naturally high. Of the regular courts, the subordinate magistrates, who try the bulk of the cases, show the lowest percentage of convictions. Taking all courts together, 34·70 per cent., or one in three of the persons charged, were convicted. For all courts of the presidency outside Madras the percentage for the same period was 39·72.

Court.	Percentage of conviction.
Court of Session ...	36·86
District Magistrate ...	31·40
Joint Magistrate ...	37·51
Assistant Magistrates ...	32·50
Deputy Magistrates ...	38·71
Subordinate Magistrates	30·47
Bench Magistrates ...	79·63
Special Magistrates ...	93·75

Appeals.

The average number of appeals to first-class magistrates and to the Court of Session, during each of the five years ending 1892, was 316 and 38 respectively. The percentage of persons who appealed to those on whom appealable sentences were passed by the subordinate magistracy was 16·52 per cent., and the corresponding ratio in the case of appeals from the decisions of first-class magistrates was 52·78 per cent. It is only natural that the latter ratio should be the higher, for the offences tried by such magistrates are more serious and the sentence, of course, more severe. For the presidency as a whole the percentage of actual to possible appellants was 46·98 per cent. in the case of persons convicted by first-class magistrates and 10·10 per cent. in the case of those dealt with by subordinate magistrates. Of appellants from decisions of first-class magistrates 21·47 per cent. were wholly and 15·18 per cent. were partially successful; the corresponding figures for the whole presidency are 19·91 and 12·70 per cent. Putting it in another way, of the total number of persons on whom appealable sentences were passed by first-class magistrates 11·13 per cent. succeeded in getting their convictions reversed and 7·87 per cent,

CHAP. XV. CRIMINAL JUSTICE. Appeals.

got the sentence or order modified in some way; in the case of the remaining 81·00 per cent. the magistrate's decision was not interfered with. For the presidency, as a whole, 9·14 per cent. of the persons convicted were wholly and 5·83 per cent. partially successful. Turning next to the appellants from the decisions of subordinate magistrates, 38·70 per cent. of those who actually appealed were wholly and 6·83 per cent. partially successful. Of those on whom appealable sentences were passed, 6·12 per cent. got the decision reversed and 1·08 per cent. obtained some modification of the sentence or order; the corresponding figures for the presidency are 3·33 and 0·88 per cent.

Receipts and Charges.

The average annual receipts of the criminal courts of Coimbatore during the five years ending 1892 amounted to Rs. 30,495. Fines yielded Rs. 22,621 and court-fees Rs. 7,582. The average annual charges during the same period were Rs. 73,684 and the bulk of this was for salaries and contingencies. The net cost of these courts to Government was thus Rs. 43,189 a year.

Village Magistrates' Courts.

The judicial work done by village magistrates is very trifling. The average number of cases instituted in their courts in each of the last five years was only 602, although the number of petty cases must have been far larger than this. The number of village magistrates who actually tried cases in any one year was on an average 403, which gives less than two cases to each magistrate.

POLICE. Previous systems.

From a report in 1806 by the Collector (Mr. Garrow) and from other sources, such as Buchanan, it is gathered that on the decay of the Vijayanagar empire a number of poligars came into being; these assumed judicial powers both civil and criminal, extending to those of life and death. These poligars were predatory chieftains, under whom were head kávalgárs, and under these in turn the village kávalgárs, who acted as police or plunderers as occasion or their master's command might serve. When Mysore extended its rule over the district, a powerful military police was established, both to keep the peace and to overawe the poligars; these kandácháradа peons, as they were called, numbered between 10,000 and 15,000 men in the taluks north of the Nóyil, and were partly employed in garrisoning forts under killadárs, partly in police stations under hoblidárs at various centres. This was really a rampant military despotism under which robbers may have been overawed; but the people were subject to the caprices and exactions of those who held the sword. This instrument, which Hyder found ready to his hand, he developed; his police system was one of terrorism, and while he did not prevent plunder which eventually supplied his own coffers, his vigilance against crime or offences, real or supposed, was unremitting, and punishments were heavy

Previous systems.

and prompt. As will be seen in Wilks, Hyder added the post-office to his police system, using its officials not as mere carriers, but as officers of an intelligence department, who penetrated the secrets even of households, especially of the wealthy, and transmitted their information direct to Hyder. In Tippoo's time this system became relaxed, and for some years before its acquisition by the British the district was neglected; it also seems that the rent-free lands by which the village police were paid were resumed; hence the greatest oppression and license by the uncontrolled and unpaid revenue servants, and the starting up of rebels and robbers all over the country. This was promptly checked upon the British assumption, but no system had in 1806 been adopted, and the force was unable fully to cope with crime. The only police were the revenue servants, viz., the tahsildars, monigars, kandácharada peons, and talaiyáris; and as the revenue work gave them much greater advantages, police work was naturally neglected, and in many villages the people had recourse to private kávalgárs, who, under the system which still appears to obtain in the Kallan country, preserved their own villages from depredation, and, in case of crime, either detected the offender, recovered the property, or made good the loss. The 'kudi-talaiyári,' or privately-paid village watchman, is still an institution in Coimbatore; he is frequently a Koravan, and his office seems to be hereditary and paid by grain contributions.

In the towns the system of night patrols was adopted, the town being divided into wards, each of which furnished men who not only did police duty by day and night, but kept the streets clean of dirt, and conserved the avenues. These men appear to be the revenue tótis, who, however, in the villages are public servants.

Shortly after Mr. Garrow's letter the judicial regulations were introduced, by which the old village police system was done away with, and the táná or station system introduced, the Zilla Judge being placed at the head of it. The so-called police were, however, mere parties of men of more or less intelligence and unscrupulousness, and being entirely outside the village and revenue system, and totally disconnected from the only persons who had real authority and information, were either useless or mischievous, while there was an awkward division and clashing of authority. In 1816 (*vide* Regulation IX of 1816) the then natural system was reverted to; Collectors with their tahsildars and village munsifs became the magistracy, and police executive functions were *ex officio* vested in them, the village talaiyáris being the rank and file of the force. The talaiyáris, however, who were the backbone of this system, were never properly paid; in the original

CHAP. XV. POLICE. — Previous systems.

settlement allowances were granted for revenue servants, but not for the police duties of the talaiyáris, whose mániam lands had been resumed by Tippoo. They were consequently unwilling to work, though they were liable to punishment if they failed to detect crimes which occurred in their respective villages. They were paid by fees, which they collected from the villagers under the well-known kával system. Several attempts were made by District Magistrates to get their position bettered, but with no avail; though waste lands were in 1844 assigned as talaiyári ináms, they, being immemorial waste, were of poor quality, and required capital for their development. In some cases the revenue on certain pattá lands was assigned, but in most cases they were waste lands and remained waste, so that the talaiyáris being almost without pay, it was not to be wondered at "that in no district has crime been more rife and detection less successful" (1846). Money payments were sanctioned in 1862 and the inám lands resumed, but again cash payments were withdrawn and the ináms restored. Under the influence of high prices and extension of cultivation, the lands have now a small value in most cases, but the talaiyári is still miserably off. As the district developed, the duties of the superior revenue officers became more and more varied and burdensome, so that the need of a semi-distinct, organized force, both for prevention and detection, became evident; hence in 1859 Sir William Robinson's police system of a *quasi*-military force, divested of all judicial functions and confined to police duties alone, was introduced into the district. This is too well known to need description; it need merely be said that though separated from the magisterial system, its working is to a certain extent supervised by the magistrates, while in its detective capacity it is in intimate connection with the ancient village police officers. For police purposes the Nílgiris are attached to the Coimbatore district; allowance has to be made for this in statistical matters. The police head-quarters are at Coimbatore; the taluks of Coimbatore, Palladam, Polláchi, Udamalpet, Satyamangalam and Kollégál are under the immediate charge of the Superintendent, who has also, of course, the chief authority over the whole district. The remaining taluks are in charge of the Assistant Superintendent, who is also a European officer, with head-quarters at Erode. The Nílgiris are under a second Assistant Superintendent, who is stationed at Ootacamund.

Present force.

The present police force of the district (including Nilgiris) consists of one Superintendent, two Assistant Superintendents, 24 Inspectors, and 1,071 constables. There are also 15 talaiyáris employed in watching certain ghát roads. There is one police

CHAP. XV. POLICE.

Present force.

officer to every 8·0 square miles and every 1,917 of the population; or if we take only the police force employed on ordinary police duties, there is one to every 10·2 square miles and 2,430 inhabitants. The corresponding figures for the whole presidency are 8·4 square miles and 2,112 inhabitants. The total cost of the police was in 1892 Rs. 2,21,649, or 1 anna and 8 pies per head of the population. All the constables are armed with batons, 357 are provided with fire-arms and 714 have swords. All the officers and 935 of the 1,071 men can read and write.

Its work.

The subjoined table shows the percentage of cases detected by the police and the percentage of property recovered during each of the last five years:—

Year.	Percentage of cases detected.		Percentage of persons convicted among persons arrested.		Percentage of property recovered.	
	Coimbatore.	Presidency.	Coimbatore.	Presidency.	Coimbatore.	Presidency.
1888 ...	29·5	31·3	32·6	27·8	19·5	18·9
1889 ...	35·2	32·6	34·7	28·5	32·5	21·8
1890. ...	37·8	35·2	38·3	29·6	23·0	25·5
1891 ...	28·8	32·9	33·7	30·3	22·2	21·3
1892 ...	36·1	35·5	34·3	30·2	22·3	22·7

It will be seen that judged by the percentage of detections, the work of the police was pretty fair.

The foregoing statistics relate to all cognizable offences under the Penal Code except nuisances. The percentage of detections in some of the grave crimes is given in the marginal table, which is based on the figures for the five years ending with 1892. These figures show that detection was less successful in Coimbatore than in the presidency as a whole. The total value of property lost through crime in the five years is estimated at about Rs. 2,46,000, of which property valued at Rs. 58,000 was recovered. This leaves an average annual income to criminals of Rs. 37,700, but the value, as reported to the police, is probably exaggerated.

Grave crime.	Percentage detected.	
	Coimbatore.	Presidency.
Murder	23·8	28·1
Dacoity	28·4	30·9
House-breaking...	29·7	35·7
Robbery ...	35·2	42·2
Cattle theft ...	35·6	47·4
Other theft ...	43·7	43·6

CRIME.

The state of crime in the district at the beginning of the century is described by Mr. Garrow in a report dated 1806. The

CHAP. XV. CRIME.

chief crimes were cattle-poisoning, cattle-theft, gang-robberies and house-breaking, of which the last was by far the most common. Highway robberies and murders were comparatively rare, and petty thefts, though numerous, were dictated more by necessity than habitual vice. The principal criminal classes were the Koravas and Valaiyans, but the cattle-poisoners were Paraiyans and Chakkiliyans, and the Véttuvans took part in the theft of cattle, which they drove to Palghat for sale.

Recent statistics.

The subjoined statement shows the amount of crime in the district during each of the last five years :—

Year.	Offences under the Penal Code.		Offences under special and local laws.	Total.
	Grave crimes.	Others.		
1888	938	3,034	1,730	5,702
1889	888	3,044	2,305	6,237
1890	934	3,053	2,688	6,675
1891	1,199	3,298	3,567	8,064
1892	1,373	3,672	4,016	9,061
AVERAGE ...	1,067	3,220	2,861	7,148

Grave crimes show a steady increase: the figures, it is true, include all classes of theft, but even excluding thefts altogether, the number of grave offences was much larger at the end than at the beginning of the quinquennium. In spite of this fact, the ratio of crime to population is lower for Coimbatore than for the presidency generally. Taking all offences together, there is in Coimbatore one offence per annum to every 280 of the population, the ratio for the presidency as a whole being one to every 155 inhabitants. For grave crime alone the ratios are 1 to 1,879 for Coimbatore and 1 to 1,754 for the presidency; for other offences under the Penal Code 1 to 623 in Coimbatore against 1 to 441 in the whole province; and for offences under special and local laws, *i.e.*, chiefly breaches of the forest, excise, and municipal laws, 1 to 701 in Coimbatore and 1 to 277 in all districts together.

Grave crime.

Statistics of the prevalence of the more important crime are given below :—

Crime.	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.	1892.
Murder	34	31	33	30	53
Dacoity	22	19	7	43	43
Robbery	20	9	7	35	34
House-breaking	287	190	237	268	262
Theft { Cattle	333	324	303	505	533
Theft { Ordinary	657	624	468	526	514

CHAP. XV. CRIME. Grave crime.

Murder, dacoity and cattle-theft appear to be much more common in Coimbatore than in other districts of the presidency. No reason has been assigned for the excessive number of murders committed in the district. One of the murders perpetrated in 1888 was of a peculiarly horrible character, a man offering a sacrifice of his own child in order to discover hidden treasure. The regrettably large number of dacoities in Coimbatore is, in part, ascribed to failure of rain and consequent rise in prices. Rich village Kavundans are said to engage Koravas for the express purpose of committing dacoity on their enemies, and they, of course, shelter the Koravas and do their utmost to help them to escape detection. Referring to the large number (43) of dacoity cases in 1893, the Superintendent of Police remarks, "It is very unfortunate that this "should be so, but in a district like Coimbatore where there is not "a village without a faction, where the village police are often the "ringleaders in crime or at best passively indifferent, it is almost "hopeless to expect any rapid improvement." Cattle-theft shows no signs of abatement; in 1888 there were only 333 cases, but by 1892 the number rose to 533. It is said that the actual number of cases of cattle-theft is even greater, as the system of paying black-mail (tuppukkúli) to the thieves has never been stamped out. Owners compound with the thieves and do not report the thefts, or they report afterwards that the cattle had merely strayed. Many of the thieves are Kallans and come from the adjoining district of Madura.

Suicides and accidental deaths.

Number of Suicides and Accidental Deaths, 1888–1892.

Cause of death.	Total.	Males.	Females.
Suicide ...	561	209	352
Drowning ...	2,071	890	1,181
Wild beasts ...	10	10	...
Snakes ...	287	174	113
Other causes. ...	333	266	67
TOTAL ...	3,262	1,549	1,713

The number of accidental deaths has always been pretty high in Coimbatore. During the last five years the average annual number of suicides and accidental deaths was 652; of these 310 were males and 342 were females. This gives a ratio of one death to every 3,075 inhabitants, the corresponding ratio for the presidency, as a whole, being 1 to 3,142. Drowning is the favourite method of suicide with females, more than 88 per cent. having adopted this mode of bringing their existence to a close. In the case of males, 76 per cent. drowned themselves and 23 per cent. died by hanging.

JAILS. Coimbatore Central Jail.

The jails of the district may be divided into two classes—the large central prison at Coimbatore and the subsidiary jails, of which there is one at the head-quarters of every subordinate

CHAP. XV. JAILS. Coimbatore Central Jail.

magistrate except that of Coimbatore town. The latter jails are for convicts whose sentences do not exceed one month, and for prisoners under trial; all others are confined in the central jail, which in its arrangement and administration resembles the large convict prisons in England.

The central jail was commenced in 1862, was partially occupied in 1865, and was completed in 1868. The establishment was entertained in 1866, during which year the Superintendent and all subordinate officers were appointed.

The jail is situated on a plain to the north of the cantonment and to the north-east of the town of Coimbatore. The country about the jail is cultivated; the land attached to the jail, about 175 acres exclusive of that on which it stands, is only slightly cultivated owing to the poorness of the soil and the great want of water.

The jail is not built on the standard plan. It contains 12 compartments or yards radiating to the outer walls from the central tower, the hospitals and quarantine wards being in separate enclosures on the north-west side. Immediately to the east of the tower is another large enclosure which contains the close prison. This prison accommodates 96 prisoners, each in a separate cell. There are six blocks of cells radiating from a centre, each block containing 16 cells; in the enclosure there are a warders' lodge, store-room, bath, &c. The whole is built of pisé; the cells are roofed with arches of brick-work, and, with the exception of the door and windows to the warders' lodge and close to the store-room; there is no wood-work in the whole building. The capacity of the jail, including the close prison, is for 1,266 prisoners, viz., 1,260 males and 6 females, exclusive of hospital and observation cells, which accommodate 123 and 54 persons, respectively.

The prisoners are employed on the jail farm and gardens and on manufactures. The jail farm has not been successful owing to the want of a proper person to superintend it; also to the excessive poorness of the soil and an insufficiency of water, although there are some 20 wells in various parts of it. The vegetable gardens comprise about 25 acres, and supply vegetables to the prisoners all the year. Manufactures are carried on to a large extent: they consist of cotton cloth and cumbly (blanket) weaving, boot and sandal making for the Police Department, cotton carpet weaving, cotton and wool spinning, coir mat and rope making, carpentry, sawing timber by hand and machinery, masonry work, smiths' work, basket and chair making, and numerous miscellaneous works. In 1875 a large quantity of weaving machinery, consisting of power looms, warping, winding, and bobbin-machines,

CHAP. XV. JAILS. Coimbatore Central Jail.

were transferred from the Penitentiary in Madras; the looms, instead of being worked by steam-power, are worked by treadmill. The prisoners also do all the menial work of the jail, viz., cooking, scavengering, washing clothes and grinding grain; they are also employed, when required, in making the cloth for their own clothing, and cumblies and sleeping mats for their own use.

By extreme industry and good conduct a convict may earn a remission not exceeding one-sixth of the total period of imprisonment awarded to him and also a gratuity not exceeding Rs. 10 upon discharge. During the first sixth part of his sentence each man is kept under probation, from which condition he is, if well behaved, passed through three classes; he may then be made a maistry and finally a convict warder guard. One maistry is set over every 12 convicts and one overseer over every 50. The gradual progress through these various grades brings with it increased privileges in the way of writing to, and receiving letters from, relatives, or having personal interviews with them, so that every incentive to good conduct is held out. Convict warder guards are given rice diet, are allowed to cook for themselves, and are permitted to spend a small portion of their batta every week in fruit. They take sentry duty inside the jail at night.

The diet consists of ragi every day, except Wednesday and Sunday evening, when rice is issued; 5 ounces of meat without bone or 2½ ounces of salt-fish is issued three days a week. Vegetables and ingredients for making curry are issued daily. The amount of ragi or cholum for each male prisoner is 24 ounces per day, except on Wednesdays and Sundays when the issue is 13 ounces of ragi and 12 ounces of rice; the women and juvenile prisoners get 20 ounces of grain and 4 ounces of meat.

Each prisoner gets a full meal at 11 A.M. and 5–30 P.M. with a cup of warm ragi conjee (gruel) early in the morning before going to work. The health of the prisoners is in no way deleteriously affected by their food or labour, and, as a rule, prisoners improve in their general appearance after they have been imprisoned some little time.

The vital statistics appended to this section show that Coimbatore is, on the whole, a healthy jail. In 1889 and 1892 the death-rate, it is true, was enormously high, but the chief reason for this was the extraordinary prevalence of cholera during the two years. In the latter year the average death-rate for all central prisons was as high as 62·38 per mille. From the commencement of that year, and indeed from an earlier date, distress was experienced in the province and relief works had to be opened. The existence of scarcity and the high prices of grain filled the jail with prisoners

CHAP. XV. JAILS. — Coimbatore Central Jail.

who had undergone a more or less prolonged period of privation outside and whose health on admission was bad or indifferent. The epidemic of cholera which visited the presidency in 1891 was the severest experienced since 1877. The epidemic which occurred in the following year was also very severe, being only second to that of 1891. The presence of cholera in jails during 1892 is not, therefore, to be wondered at.

The average annual cost of a prisoner in the Coimbatore Jail has generally been less than that for all central prisons taken together. In 1889 the cost was Rs. 82, but in 1893 the cost per head was only Rs. 63–9–11, while the net cost was only Rs. 62–14–0 against Rs. 80–9–0 in 1889.

Subsidiary Jails.

There are fifteen subsidiary jails, information regarding which is tabulated as follows :—

Number.	Subsidiary jails.	Tahsildar or Deputy Tahsildar's head-quarters.	Number of wards.		Number the jail will hold.		Remarks.
			Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	
1	Méttuppálaiyam.	Dy. Tahdr.	2	2	14	6	Numbers 2, 4, 5, 6, 14, are excellent sub-jails of the standard pattern. New sub-jails are under construction at Kollégál, Gópichettipálaiyam and Bhaváni.
2	Palladam ...	Tahsildar...	2	2	12	6	
3	Avanási ...	Dy. Tahdr.	2	2	12	6	
4	Pollâchi ...	Tahsildar...	2	2	12	6	
5	Udamalpet ...	Do. ...	2	2	12	6	
6	Erode	Do. ...	4	2	18	9	
7	Perundurai ...	Dy. Tahdr.	2	1	9	6	
8	Bhaváni ...	Tahsildar ...	3	2	13	9	
9	Kollégál ...	Do. ...	2	2	9	8	
10	Satyamangalam.	Do. ...	2	2	8	8	
11	Gópichettipálaiyam	Dy. Tahdr.	...	...	...	...	
12	Karúr	Tahsildar...	2	2	16	8	
13	Aravakkuric'chi.	Dy. Tahdr.	1	...	4	...	
14	Dhárápuram ...	Tahsildar...	2	2	12	6	
15	Kángayam ...	Dy. Tahdr.	2	2	5	5	

It is only convicts whose sentences do not exceed one month who undergo their complete term in subsidiary jails; but persons under trial are largely confined in these prisons, and long-term convicts and even civil prisoners are occasionally lodged in them temporarily on their way to the larger jails. The average daily strength of the convicts in these prisons was only 20 in 1888, while in 1891 it was nearly 37; the average number of under-trial prisoners also varied from 36 in 1890 to 83 in 1891. This large increase is no doubt partly due to the increase in crime which is the natural outcome of the growth of population, but it also points to a higher proportion of accused persons being detained in custody instead of being

liberated on bail. The average annual expenditure on these jails is about Rs. 4,000. The rate per head of prisoner in 1892 was Rs. 54-10-6 in Coimbatore and Rs. 55-14-6 in the presidency as a whole. There are hardly any earnings in subsidiary jails, the prisoners being employed for the most part in keeping the jail premises clean.

CHAP. XV. JAILS. Subsidiary Jails.

Statistics.

Statement showing the Average Number of Prisoners in the Central Jail at Coimbatore.

Year.	Convicts.	Under-trial.	Civil.	Total.
1888	720·37	4·85	9·66	**734·88**
1889	758·28	6·03	11·83	**776·14**
1890	798·57	6·47	6·77	**811·81**
1891	874·52	19·43	8·39	**902·34**
1892	953·33	35·34	7·90	**996·57**

Statement showing the Gross Cost of guarding and maintaining the Prisoners in the Coimbatore Jail and their net earnings.

—	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.	1892.
	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.
Rations	19,145	21,675	28,085	27,584	33,510
Establishment	25,977	26,802	27,163	26,100	27,321
Hospital charges	744	1,996	1,297	885	2,824
Clothing	2,075	3,941	3,493	3,084	3,231
Contingencies	5,821	9,226	5,482	5,282	7,052
Grand Total ...	**53,762**	**63,640**	**60,520**	**62,935**	**73,938**
Cash earnings of prisoners ...	13,946	1,105	1,617	2,491	17,378
Net cost to Government ...	39,816	62,535	58,903	60,444	56,560
	RS. A.	RS. A.	RS. A.	RS. A.	RS. A.
Gross cost per prisoner ...	73 3	82 0	74 9	69 12	74 3
Net cost per prisoner	54 3	80 9	72 9	67 0	56 12

Vital Statistics, Coimbatore Jail.

Ratio per mille of average strength.		1888.		1889.		1890.		1891.		1892.	
		Coimbatore.	Presidency.*	Coimbatore.	Presidency.*	Coimbatore.	Presidency.*	Coimbatore.	Presidency.*	Coimbatore.	Presidency.*
Of daily average number of sick.	Males ...	14·82	24·43	21·50	24·58	19·79	24·31	13·73	21·38	33·76	24·77
	Females ...	25·93	27·57	7·30	29·98	22·40	24·19	...	17·84	76·19	23·42
	TOTAL ...	**15·06**	**24·54**	**21·25**	**24·77**	**19·81**	**24·31**	**13·73**	**21·27**	**33·81**	**24·73**
Of total deaths, both in and out of hospital.	Males ...	19·48	25·80	104·92	39·14	32·22	23·89	33·26	35·31	118·53	45·70
	Females ...	61·73	17·51	...	22·61	...	22·61	...	36·28	...	28·29
	TOTAL ...	**20·41**	**25·50**	**103·07**	**38·53**	**32·02**	**23·85**	**33·24**	**35·34**	**118·40**	**45·14**

* Inclusive of sub-jails.

CHAP. XV.
JAILS.
Statistics.

Statement showing the Average Number of Prisoners confined in the Subsidiary Jails in Coimbatore.

Year.	Convicts.	Under-trial.	Civil.	Total.
1888	20·34	39·55	0·45	**60·34**
1889	21·88	40·45	0·24	**62·57**
1890	21·97	35·88	0·12	**57·97**
1891	36·58	82·57	...	**119·15**
1892	31·79	71·93	...	**103·72**

Statement showing the Total Cost of guarding and maintaining the Prisoners confined in the Subsidiary Jails in Coimbatore.

Year.	Rations.	Establishment.	Clothing and bedding.	Other charges.	Total.
	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.
1888	2,081	371	...	1,016	**3,468**
1889	1,797	392	...	1,007	**3,196**
1890	1,532	477	...	802	**2,811**
1891	3,185	495	...	990	**4,670**
1892	3,967	638	...	1,064	**5,669**
TOTAL ...	**12,562**	**2,373**	...	**4,879**	**19,814**
AVERAGE ...	**2,512**	**475**	...	**976**	**3,963**

Statement showing the Cost per head of Prisoner confined in the Subsidiary Jails in Coimbatore.

—	1888.		1889.		1890.		1891.		1892.	
	Coimbatore.	Presidency.	Coimbatore.	Presidency.	Coimbatore.	Presidency.	Coimbatore.	Presidency.	Coimbatore.	Presidency.
	RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.
Rations	**34 11 11**	39 4 10	**28 13 3**	34 4 2	**26 7 9**	32 5 5	**26 11 8**	33 2 2	**38 3 11**	39 13 5
Establishment	**6 2 4**	12 3 11	**6 4 3**	8 12 5	**8 3 8**	8 13 9	**4 2 6**	8 2 8	**6 2 5**	7 1 0
Clothing and bedding ...	...	0 7 8	...	0 10 1	...	0 9 11	...	0 14 7	...	0 9 4
Other charges	**16 13 5**	9 6 1	**16 1 6**	7 4 10	**13 13 4**	6 14 7	**8 4 11**	6 14 4	**10 4 2**	9 0 7
TOTAL ...	**57 7 7**	**60 9 10**	**51 1 3**	**50 4 7**	**48 7 10**	**48 2 6**	**39 3 1**	**48 7 2**	**54 10 6**	**55 14 6**

NOTE.—The average cost of establishment is calculated on the total number of prisoners, including convicts, under-trial prisoners and civil prisoners.

The average cost of diet is calculated on the total of convicts and prisoners under trial.

The average cost of clothing is calculated on the total number of convicts.

The total cost per head of prisoner is calculated in the same way as the average cost of establishment.

CHAP. XV
THE ARMS ACT.

The manufacture, sale and possession of arms and ammunition are controlled by the magistracy and the police, and the subject may therefore be noticed in this chapter. Natives of India, except those exempted from the operation of the Indian Arms Act, 1878, are not permitted to possess arms without a license, but in many cases the provisions of the Act are neglected through ignorance. The number of ordinary licenses to possess arms and to go armed has risen from 1,265 in 1888 to 1,761 in 1892. One person in every 1,138 of the population now has a license, while for the presidency as a whole the ratio is 1 in every 670. In addition to these, 7,238 licenses were issued in 1892 for the possession and transport of gunpowder and fuses for *bonâ fide* blasting purposes. Many of these were granted in connection with the sinking and deepening of wells for purposes of irrigation.

The number of arms and ammunition shops was 25 in 1892, and the licenses granted to them were only for keeping and selling arms, ammunition or military stores. These shops are inspected once in every three months and the stock checked with the sale registers. In this way an effective control is exercised over the sale of gunpowder, sulphur and arms and any unusual activity in the demand for them can be readily investigated.

CHAPTER XVI.

REGISTRATION.

CHAP. XVI. REGISTRATION.

Introduction.

THE law relating to the registration of deeds was originally passed as Act XVI of 1864; this was modified by subsequent enactments, and finally a new Act (III of 1877) repealed all former statutes.

Number of offices.

The district is under a registrar, whose head-quarters are at Coimbatore, and who acts as sub-registrar for the head-quarter division, with 24 sub-registrars. The places at which the sub-registrars' offices are situated are as follow:—

Ánaimalai.	Kumárapálaiyam.
Aravakkuric'chi.	Lakshmínaráyanasamudram.
Avanási.	Méttuppálaiyam.
Bhaváni.	Palladam.
Dhárápuram.	Periyanáyakkanpálaiyam.
Erode.	Perundurai.
Ganapati.	Polláchi.
Gópichettipálaiyam.	Satyamangalam.
Kángayam.	Súlúr.
Karúr.	Tálavádi.
Kodumudi.	Tiruppúr.
Kollégál.	Udamalpet.

There is thus one registration office to every 314 square miles, the average for the presidency being one to every 307 square miles.

Documents registered.

All registered documents are copied consecutively into the appropriate books, from which are compiled the all-important indexes, which enable transactions in given lands to be traced by means of the names of the parties and of the village. Hitherto there were no field registers in which every transaction affecting a field is noted up against that field in such a way that intending buyers or mortgagees can know the exact title to, or encumbrances on, a given field by a mere glance at the register; but from the 1st January 1895 a subsidiary index giving this detailed information has been opened and henceforward the registry of title will be as complete as is to be found in any country, and far in advance of the English method.

Documents registered.

The number of documents registered shows a steady increase: in 1888–89 it was 41,670 and by 1892–93 it had risen to 56,056. The registrations for 1866–67 numbered 4,794 and those for 1877–78 (the first year in which the new Act was brought into force) 12,857. Of the total number of documents registered in 1892–93, 38,471 were those of which registration was compulsory. Nearly all the documents relate to immovable property, and they are, for the most part, deeds of sale or mortgage.

About a third of the documents presented for registration are registered on the same day, nearly one-half are registered on the following day, and a little over one-tenth on the third day. It is thus clear that there is hardly any delay in registering documents.

Value of property dealt with.

The total value of the property concerned was nearly a crore and fifteen lakhs of rupees in 1892–93. The value of immovable property sold was 40·53 lakhs, or an average of Rs. 216 for each sale deed; for the presidency as a whole the average was Rs. 190. The total number of such documents was 18,805, and of these 9,136 were for sales of property valued at less than Rs. 100. The average value of such deeds was Rs. 38, while in the case of sales of property valued at Rs. 100 and above, the average value of each transaction was Rs. 383. The corresponding averages for the presidency were Rs. 42 for the former and Rs. 370 for the latter. There were 27,270 mortgages of immovable property, the total value being 48·45 lakhs and the average Rs. 178, or Rs. 10 less than that for the presidency. The mortgage deeds of immovable property for less than Rs. 100 numbered 12,127 and the average value was Rs. 44, or rather more than the corresponding mean for sales. In the case of mortgages for Rs. 100 and upwards, the average value of each deed was Rs. 285 against Rs. 383 in the case of sales.

The average value of all documents registered was Rs. 205 or Rs. 5·73 per head; the average for the presidency was Rs. 203 or Rs. 5·16 per head.

Financial.

The total receipts of the registration department in the district amounted to Rs. 78,720 in 1892–93, while the expenditure was Rs. 41,016. There was thus a profit of Rs. 37,704, but it must be remembered that there are some items of indirect expenditure not included in the charges. The average annual surplus during the past five years was Rs. 31,631.

CHAP. XVI.
REGISTRATION.
Statistics.

Statement of Registrations, Receipts and Expenditure in the District of Coimbatore.

Year.	Total number of documents registered in Books I, III and IV.	Total amount of ordinary fees.	Total of other receipts.	Total receipts.	Total expenditure.	Surplus.
		RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.
1888-89 ...	41,670	51,361 7 0	9,476 7 5	**60,837 14 5**	35,666 0 1	**25,171 14 4**
1889-90 ...	43,409	52,839 1 0	11,804 4 0	**64,643 5 0**	37,082 13 10	**27,560 7 2**
1890-91 ...	46,100	56,770 14 0	10,637 2 0	**67,408 0 0**	38,009 11 5	**29,398 4 7**
1891-92 ...	51,397	61,892 15 0	16,045 13 11	**77,938 12 11**	39,618 15 8	**38,319 13 3**
1892-93 ...	56,056	68,292 1 0	10,428 0 7	**78,720 1 7**	41,015 10 0	**37,704 7 7**

Statement showing the Average Values of Documents registered in the District of Coimbatore in the years 1889–90 *to* 1892–93.

Year.	Sales of immovable property.		Mortgages of immovable property.		Leases of immovable property.			All documents registered in Books I and IV.
	Rs. 100 and above in value.	Less than Rs. 100.	Rs. 100 and above.	Less than Rs. 100.	Perpetual.	Compulsorily registered other than perpetual.	Optionally registered.	
	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.
1889-90.	340	**39**	287	**46**	8	81	30	**200**
1890-91.	358	**38**	311	**45**	8	87	34	**211**
1891-92.	369	**38**	264	**44**	7	89	31	**195**
1892-93.	383	**38**	285	**44**	8	93	43	**205**

Statement of Registrations in the District of Coimbatore for the years 1888–89 *to* 1892–93.

Registration affecting immovable property, Book I.

——	1888–89.	1889–90.	1890–91.	1891–92.	1892–93.
Compulsory—					
Instruments of gift (section 17, clause *a*)	160	154	175	172	207
Instruments of sale or exchange—					
Of value of Rs. 100 and upwards	7,646	7,758	8,177	8,116	9,669
Of value less than Rs. 100	7,253	7,966	7,744	7,896	9,136
Instruments of mortgage of the value of Rs. 100 and upwards	11,130	11,081	12,472	14,085	15,143
Other instruments registered under section 17, clauses *b* and *c*, or section 5 of the Indian Trusts Act of 1882	1,249	1,408	1,403	1,437	1,613
Instruments of perpetual lease (section 17, clause *d*)	76	129	120	154	229
All instruments of lease (other than perpetual leases) which have been compulsorily registered under section 17, clause *d*	1,679	1,836	1,807	2,059	2,470
TOTAL OF COMPULSORY REGISTRATION ...	**29,193**	**30,332**	**31,898**	**33,919**	**38,467**
Optional—					
Instruments of sale or exchange of the value of less than Rs. 100	...	...	...	...	...
Instruments of mortgage of the value of less than Rs. 100 ...	8,334	8,144	9,133	12,155	12,127
Instruments of lease for one year or less (section 18, clause *a*)	225	279	261	330	395
Instruments of lease exempted under the proviso in section 17, clause *d*	1,009	1,135	1,123	1,032	1,098
Awards (section 17, clause *i*)	...	...	5	1	23
Other instruments registered under section 18, clauses *a* and *b*	371	450	562	681	963

Statement of Registrations in the District of Coimbatore for the years 1888–89 *to* 1892–93—cont.

	—	1888–89.	1889–90.	1890–91.	1891–92.	1892–93.
Registration affecting immovable property, Book I—*cont.*	Optional—*cont.*					
	Miscellaneous documents other than certified copies of decrees and orders of court	488	560	498	434	468
	Certified copies of decrees and orders of court	5	2	1	...	...
	TOTAL OF OPTIONAL REGISTRATIONS RELATING TO IMMOVABLE PROPERTY	**10,432**	**10,570**	**11,583**	**14,633**	**15,074**
	TOTAL OF REGISTRATIONS AFFECTING IMMOVABLE PROPERTY ...	**39,625**	**40,902**	**43,481**	**48,552**	**53,541**
Registration affecting movable property, Book IV.	Compulsory—					
	Instruments of gift of movable property (section 123, clause 2, Transfer of Property Act)	2	2	5	2	4
	Optional—					
	Instruments of sale, &c., of movable property	56	44	42	19	18
	Obligations for the payment of money (section 18, clause *f*) ...	1,456	1,891	1,974	2,155	1,945
	All other documents registered under section 18, clause *f* ...	481	523	526	608	487
	TOTAL OF REGISTRATIONS IN BOOK IV AFFECTING MOVABLE PROPERTY	**1,995**	**2,460**	**2,547**	**2,784**	**2,454**
Number of wills (section 18, clause *e*) registered in Book III		49	46	72	61	61
Written authorities to adopt other than those conferred by will, Book III ...		1	1	...	...	...
	Grand Total ...	**41,670**	**43,409**	**46,100**	**51,397**	**56,056**

Statement showing the Aggregate Value of Property transferred by Documents registered in the District of Coimbatore.

—		1888–89.	1889–90.	1890–91.	1891–92.	1892–93.
Affecting immovable property.						
Deeds of gift—						
Number of deeds	No.	*160*	*154*	*175*	*172*	*207*
Aggregate value	Rs.	61,378	76,362	67,615	89,679	70,524
Deeds of sale or exchange (Rs. 100 and upwards)—						
Number of deeds	No.	*7,646*	*7,758*	*8,177*	*8,116*	*9,669*
Aggregate value	Rs.	26,81,727	26,40,484	29,25,619	29,98,921	37,07,873
Deeds of sale or exchange (less than Rs. 100)—						
Number of deeds	No.	*7,253*	*7,966*	*7,744*	*7,896*	*9,136*
Aggregate value	Rs.	2,82,519	3,08,363	2,96,074	3,03,556	3,44,836
Perpetual leases—						
Number of deeds	No.	*76*	*129*	*120*	*154*	*229*
Value of annual rents	Rs.	438	968	928	1,091	1,989
Leases other than perpetual leases which have been compulsorily registered—						
Number of deeds	No.	*1,679*	*1,836*	*1,807*	*2,059*	*2,470*
Value of annual rents	Rs.	1,30,828	1,48,140	1,57,452	1,84,799	2,29,613
All optionally registered leases—						
Number of deeds	No.	*1,234*	*1,414*	*1,384*	*1,362*	*1,493*
Aggregate value	Rs.	35,615	42,134	47,414	42,700	63,692
Amount of premium or fines paid on such sales	"	7,408	6,211	8,679	14,929	36,479
Deeds of mortgage of Rs. 100 and upwards—						
Number of deeds	No.	*11,130*	*11,081*	*12,472*	*14,085*	*15,143*
Aggregate value	Rs.	30,64,350	31,82,981	38,84,322	37,24,009	43,08,942

Statement showing the Aggregate Value of Property transferred by Documents registered in the District of Coimbatore—cont.

	—		1888–89.	1889–90.	1890–91.	1891–92.	1892–93.
Affecting immovable property—*cont.*	Deeds of mortgage (less than Rs. 100)—						
	Number of deeds	No.	*8,334*	*8,144*	*9,133*	*12,155*	*12,127*
	Aggregate value	Rs.	3,82,906	3,69,360	4,16,212	5,38,698	5,36,157
	All other deeds not mentioned above, except certified copies of decrees and orders of court—						
	Number of documents	No.	*2,108*	*2,418*	*2,468*	*2,553*	*3,067*
	Aggregate value	Rs.	12,69,973	13,45,479	13,30,955	15,05,110	16,29,944
	Certified copies of decrees and orders of court—						
	Number of documents	No.	*5*	*2*	*1*	...	...
	Aggregate value	Rs.	2,894	1,155	15	...	...
	TOTAL ... Number of deeds ...	No.	*39,625*	*40,902*	*43,481*	*48,552*	*53,541*
	TOTAL ... Aggregate value ...	Rs.	**79,20,036**	**81,21,637**	**91,35,285**	**94,03,492**	**1,09,30,049**
Affecting movable property.	Deeds of gift—						
	Number of deeds	No.	*2*	*2*	*5*	*2*	*4*
	Aggregate value	Rs.	150	576	1,850	200	446
	Deeds of sale, &c.—						
	Number of deeds	No.	*56*	*44*	*42*	*19*	*18*
	Aggregate value	Rs.	6,918	2,454	4,018	3,269	6,055

Statement showing the Aggregate Value of Property transferred by Documents registered in the District of Coimbatore—cont.

	—		1888–89.	1889–90.	1890–91.	1891–92.	1892–93.
Affecting movable property—*cont.*	Obligations for the payment of money—						
	Number of deeds	No.	*1,456*	*1,891*	*1,974*	*2,155*	*1,945*
	Aggregate value	Rs.	2,40,065	2,96,846	3,10,519	3,13,148	2,95,260
	Other instruments registered in Book IV—						
	Number of deeds	No.	*487*	*523*	*526*	*608*	*487*
	Aggregate value	Rs.	2,24,845	2,57,207	2,37,519	2,97,612	2,59,044
	TOTAL ... Number of documents	No.	*1,995*	*2,460*	*2,547*	*2,784*	*2,454*
	TOTAL ... Aggregate value ...	Rs.	**4,71,978**	**5,57,088**	**5,53,906**	**6,14,229**	**5,60,805**
	Grand Total of Documents ...	No.	*41,620*	*43,362*	*46,028*	*51,336*	*55,995*
	Grand Total of Aggregate Value ...	Rs.	**83,92,014**	**86,78,720**	**96,89,191**	**1,00,17,721**	**1,14,90,854**

CHAPTER XVII.

LOCAL GOVERNMENT.

CHAP. XVII.
MUNICIPALITIES.

THERE are three municipal towns in the district, viz., Coimbatore, Erode and Karúr. The subjoined statement shows the constitution of their councils on the 31st March 1894 :—

Town.	Constituted a municipality in	Population.	Number of councillors.		Whether Chairman nominated or elected.
			Nominated.	Elected.	
Coimbatore	1864	46,383	5	15	Elected.
Erode	1874	12,330	12	...	Nominated.
Karúr	1874	10,750	12	...	Do.

The councils were at their full sanctioned strength at the end of the year. Of the municipal councillors in Coimbatore, three were official members, and of these one was elected by the burgesses. In Erode and Karúr a fourth of the members were officials.

Finances.

The following table furnishes statistics of the receipts and charges of each municipality during the five years 1889–90 to 1893–94 :—

Year.	Income from taxation, including tolls.	Income from other sources.	Total income.	Expenditure.	Closing balance.
Coimbatore.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.
1889–90	30,097	8,434	**38,531**	40,930	2,674
1890–91	29,015	8,593	**37,608**	38,145	2,137
1891–92	31,479	10,319	**41,798**	42,995	940
1892–93	32,116	10,650	**42,766**	41,696	2,010
1893–94	30,678	11,132	**41,810**	46,059	-2,239
TOTAL ...	**1,53,385**	**49,128**	**2,02,513**	**2,09,825**	...
Erode.					
1889–90	8,263	6,517	**14,780**	12,813	4,923
1890–91	8,151	5,167	**13,318**	13,005	5,236
1891–92	8,222	4,395	**12,617**	12,582	5,271
1892–93	9,470	5,185	**14,655**	14,532	5,694
1893–94	9,418	4,681	**14,099**	15,160	4,333
TOTAL ...	**43,524**	**25,945**	**69,469**	**68,092**	...

Finances.

Year.	Income from taxation, including tolls.	Income from other sources.	Total income.	Expenditure.	Closing balance.
Karúr.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.
1889-90	8,719	5,065	**13,784**	13,768	5,804
1890-91	9,542	5,292	**14,834**	12,849	7,789
1891-92	9,384	5,637	**15,021**	17,731	5,079
1892-93	8,188	5,056	**13,244**	16,138	2,185
1893-94	7,463	7,495	**14,958**	15,801	1,342
TOTAL ...	**43,296**	**28,545**	**71,841**	**76,287**	...

In Coimbatore the expenditure exceeded the receipts in every year except 1892–93. The opening balance of 1889–90 was Rs. 5,073, while at the end of the quinquennium there was a deficit of Rs. 2,239. This was mainly due to the unusually large expenditure incurred in 1893–94. The expenditure under 'medicines and supplies' during the year exceeded the average of previous years by more than Rs. 1,000, owing to the admission of the people injured in the railway accident at Káramadai. In Erode the receipts exceeded the charges in all years but 1893–94, and the balance to the credit of the municipality at the end of that year was Rs. 4,333. The opening balance of 1889–90 was only Rs. 2,956. In the municipality of Karúr the income exceeded the expenditure in the first two years, while in the last three the charges were considerably in excess of the receipts. The closing balance of 1893–94 consequently fell to Rs. 1,342, the balance at the end of 1888–89 being Rs. 5,788.

Statements giving details of the receipts and charges of each municipality during the five years ending with the 31st March 1894, are appended to this section.

Receipts.

The principal sources of income are municipal rates and taxes. The chief taxes are those on buildings and lands, vehicles and animals and carts. Tolls also give a considerable amount in all cases. The arts tax is not levied in any of the three municipalities. The tax on buildings and lands is $6\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. on the annual rental in Erode and Karúr, but in Coimbatore the maximum rate of $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. is levied. Lands unoccupied by houses are taxed at the rate of 3 pies for every 80 square yards. The average assessment per house in 1893–94 varied from Rs. 1–14–1 in Karúr to Rs. 2–9–3 in Erode. The incidence for all district municipalities throughout the presidency was Rs. 2–3–0.

Taking all taxes and rates, the incidence per inhabitant ranges from As. 10–7 in Coimbatore to As. 12–3 in Erode, the average for

CHAP. XVII. MUNICIPALITIES.

the presidency being As. 13–3. If tolls be excluded, the incidence varies from As. 7–2 in Coimbatore to As. 8–8 in Erode.

Receipts.

Apart from the income from taxation and tolls, a considerable revenue is realized in each municipality from fees for the use of markets and slaughter-houses, school fees and grants from the district board funds in aid of educational and medical institutions.

Charges.

The chief items of expenditure are conservancy, public works (chiefly roads), education, hospitals, dispensaries and lighting. There is comparatively little expenditure on drainage or water-supply as there are no regular schemes in any of the towns. The existing water-supply and drainage are considered by the Sanitary Commissioner to be defective in all the three municipalities. A scheme for the water-supply of Coimbatore town has been put forward at an estimated cost of Rs. 4,00,700, but it has not yet been financed. In Erode the town has been surveyed, and the necessary levels taken for a drainage scheme. For the improvement of the drainage in Karúr a scheme has been proposed, and it is now under consideration. The cost of this scheme is estimated at Rs. 95,850. Coimbatore has 35 miles of road and 297 street lamps; Erode has 13 miles of road and 103 lamps and Karúr 10 miles and 121 lamps. There are thus 8 lamps per mile in Coimbatore and Erode and 12 in Karúr. The average for the presidency is 9. There are 29 public latrines in Coimbatore, 15 in Erode and 13 in Karúr. In Coimbatore there is one latrine to every 1,599 inhabitants, while in Erode the proportion is 1 to 822 and in Karúr 1 to 827. The average for all district municipalities is 1 to 1,510. Conservancy is said to be defective in Coimbatore, far from perfect in Erode and unsatisfactory in Karúr.

Conservancy is at present confined to cleaning the streets, lanes and dust-bins of the masses of rubbish, the removal of the foul matter in the open drains, and the cleaning of the latrines. In Coimbatore the system of burning the rubbish and using the ash to deodorize the night-soil has been adopted, and the poudrette is now being made on an improved plan. In Erode the rubbish is not burnt, but has hitherto been used to fill up hollows, and has been removed by the market gardeners. In Karúr, which is surrounded with wet land, the street sweepings are burnt in cinerators, while the night-soil is stored in depôts after the Coimbatore plan.

Statement showing in detail the Incomes of the Municipalities in the District of Coimbatore.

Items.	Coimbatore.					Erode.					Karúr.				
	1889–90.	1890–91.	1891–92.	1892–93.	1893–94.	1889–90.	1890–91.	1891–92.	1892–93.	1893–94.	1889–90.	1890–91.	1891–92.	1892–93.	1893–94.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
A.—Municipal rates and taxes—	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.
Tax on buildings and lands ...	14,519	14,128	15,989	16,788	16,295	4,639	4,752	4,462	5,247	5,064	3,705	3,865	4,224	4,100	4,086
Tax on vehicles and animals ...	2,191	1,990	1,950	2,118	1,906	438	622	491	617	620	493	468	483	549	450
Tax on carts	2,670	2,576	2,340	2,580	2,494	780	764	734	872	988	879	904	780	828	738
Tolls	10,717	10,321	11,200	10,630	9,983	2,406	2,013	2,535	2,734	2,746	3,642	4,305	3,897	2,711	2,189
TOTAL A.	**30,097**	**29,015**	**31,479**	**32,116**	**30,678**	**8,263**	**8,151**	**8,222**	**9,470**	**9,418**	**8,719**	**9,542**	**9,384**	**8,188**	**7,463**
B.—Realisations under special Acts ...	...	243	347	...	...	...	...	20	...	50	43	609	310	154	671
C.—Revenue derived from municipal property and powers apart from taxation—															
Rent of lands, buildings, &c., and sale-proceeds of lands ...	2,305	2,424	1,499	2,019	1,499	430	1,844	194	351	197	492	189	221	67	65
Conservancy receipts	...	29	68	212	90	...	...	122	345	...	...	51	64	80	211
Fees and revenue from educational institutions	318	398	391	393	429	328	401	598	780	875	1,761	1,219	1,896	1,703	2,001
Fees from medical institutions...	...	...	21	3	64	...	14	10	2	10	...	...	...	...	...
Fees from markets and slaughter-houses	1,000	2,205	2,495	2,637	2,627	1,216	1,333	1,506	1,511	1,595	440	794	550	635	837

Statement showing in detail the Incomes of the Municipalities in the District of Coimbatore—cont.

Items.	Coimbatore.					Erode.					Karúr.				
	1889–90.	1890–91.	1891–92.	1892–93.	1893–94.	1889–90.	1890–91.	1891–92.	1892–93.	1893–94.	1889–90.	1890–91.	1891–92.	1892–93.	1893–94.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
C.—Revenue derived from municipal property and powers apart from taxation—*cont.*	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.
License fees	371	321	670	533	601	42	...	118	121	160	...	43	43	38	38
Other fees	164 (Other fees and Fines)	586	649	532	519	31 (Other fees and Fines)	115	151	135	133	30 (Other fees and Fines)	511	440	360	471
Fines under Municipal and other Acts.		87	35	254	866		76	91	158	145		42	59	113	181
Interest of investments, &c. ...	...	207	1,200	1,205	1,206	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
TOTAL C.	**4,158**	**6,257**	**7,028**	**7,788**	**7,901**	**2,047**	**3,783**	**2,790**	**3,403**	**3,115**	**2,723**	**2,849**	**3,273**	**2,996**	**3,804**
D.—Grants and contributions—															
From Government	114	65	32	...	...	399	327	240	197	192	882	258	589	139	338
From Local Funds	1,842	1,672	1,825	1,681	1,919	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,200	1,200	1,200	1,200	1,200
From other sources	1,228	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	57	...	...	...	...	...
TOTAL D.	**3,184**	**1,737**	**1,857**	**1,681**	**1,919**	**1,399**	**1,327**	**1,240**	**1,197**	**1,249**	**2,082**	**1,458**	**1,789**	**1,339**	**1,538**
E.—Miscellaneous	1,092	356	1,087	1,181	1,312	3,071	57	345	585	267	217	376	265	567	1,482
Grand Total ...	**38,531**	**37,608**	**41,798**	**42,766**	**41,810**	**14,780**	**13,318**	**12,617**	**14,655**	**14,099**	**13,784**	**14,834**	**15,021**	**13,244**	**14,958**

Statement showing in detail the Expenditure of the Municipalities in the District of Coimbatore.

Items.	Coimbatore.					Erode.					Karúr.				
	1889–90.	1890–91.	1891–92.	1892–93.	1893–94.	1889–90.	1890–91.	1891–92.	1892–93.	1893–94.	1889–90.	1890–91.	1891–92.	1892–93.	1893–94.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
PUBLIC WORKS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.
New works—															
Communications	107	111	...	...	102	553	194	46	902	636	229	415	1,534	191	380
Buildings	...	73	...	628	...	...	945	571	1,010	434	2	8	104	830	816
Drainage	...	...	...	...	...	...	50	252	...	...	...	...	222	...	...
Water-supply	...	...	...	...	...	74	28	242	96	390	28	194	190	34	8
Miscellaneous	...	...	...	...	...	879	...	...	...	...	26	...	...	...	...
Repairs—															
Communications	5,939	5,017	4,950	5,484	5,657	1,299	1,199	1,264	790	1,363	1,040	685	1,492	674	1,640
Buildings	793	610	660	905	1,349	497	624	166	370	480	109	323	330	350	106
Drainage	1,078	1,161	640	685	2,166	50	192	192	227	246	...	...	...	...	1
Water-supply	1,486	609	1,200	269	795	50	65	172	63	187	44	63	10	79	45
Miscellaneous	80	...	* 3,000	...	...	107	...	...	...	...	19	38	...	...	...
Establishment	908	1,023	1,013	1,015	1,025	240	240	222	239	233	...	...	...	...	...
Tools and plant and other stores ...	67	107	131	8	14	...	...	10	28	18	...	...	...	...	...
TOTAL ...	10,458	8,711	11,594	8,994	11,108	3,749	3,537	3,137	3,725	3,987	1,497	1,726	3,882	2,158	2,996

* Contribution for public works.

Statement showing in detail the Expenditure of the Municipalities in the District of Coimbatore—cont.

Items.	Coimbatore.					Erode.					Karūr.				
	1889–90.	1890–91.	1891–92.	1892–93.	1893–94.	1889–90.	1890–91.	1891–92.	1892–93.	1893–94.	1889–90.	1890–91.	1891–92.	1892–93.	1893–94.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
EDUCATION.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.
Training schools	109	53	54	5	...	33	51	48	5	...	...	77	121	5	...
Municipal Schools—															
(a) On the salary system	...	...	...	...	...	315	...	...	...	...	3,286	2,254	2,679	2,298	2,187
(b) On the salary-results system ...	1,220	1,546	1,738	1,850	1,991	825	1,778	1,484	2,010	1,924	324	791	921	1,167	1,167
Salary grants	1,498	1,782	1,443	1,836	1,687	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Results grants	1,402	1,219	1,243	1,297	1,362	128	84	284	297	206	170	277	423	352	96
Combined grants	890	89	87	100	99	219	10	...	...	...	182	10	...	...	...
Inspection	308	313	309	305	305	63	70	60	61	170	...	59	55	50	90
Miscellaneous	39	40	23	249	187	105	134	110	178	238	...	...	152	410	70
TOTAL ...	**4,966**	**5,042**	**4,897**	**5,642**	**5,631**	**1,688**	**2,127**	**1,986**	**2,551**	**2,538**	**3,962**	**3,468**	**4,351**	**4,282**	**3,610**
MEDICAL SERVICES AND SANITATION.															
Hospitals and dispensaries	5,148	5,887	5,526	6,080	7,618	1,694	1,882	1,746	1,553	1,711	1,821	1,988	2,536	2,040	2,362
Contributions	249	540	776	254	255	80	89	62	76	86	89	84	69	86	78
Vaccination	284	233	269	522	423	182	194	198	190	247	122	121	122	207	202
Registration of births and deaths ...	304	308	307	341	347	87	86	86	87	63	120	132	120	94	104
Conservancy, road-cleaning and road-watering.	9,869	9,005	10,932	10,956	11,742	2,841	2,613	2,862	3,180	3,478	2,779	2,564	3,052	3,228	3,326
TOTAL ...	**15,854**	**15,973**	**17,810**	**18,153**	**20,385**	**4,884**	**4,864**	**4,954**	**5,086**	**5,585**	**4,931**	**4,889**	**5,899**	**5,656**	**6,072**

Statement showing in detail the Expenditure of the Municipalities in the District of Coimbatore—cont.

Items.	Coimbatore.					Erode.					Karúr.				
	1889-90.	1890-91.	1891-92.	1892-93.	1893-94.	1889-90.	1890-91.	1891-92.	1892-93.	1893-94.	1889-90.	1890-91.	1891-92.	1892-93.	1893-94.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
LIGHTING, &c.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.
Lighting	2,257	1,825	1,582	2,105	2,275	676	699	742	1,142	1,128	1,039	840	971	846	787
Markets and slaughter houses ...	167	168	168	173	175	52	48	47	51	88	...	...	...	...	22
Choultries	1,215	1,537	1,874	2,222	2,053	120	120	99	95	96	60	60	55	61	57
Travellers' bungalows	68	113	73	165	180	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Avenues	216	192	208	165	164	...	...	57	115	110	48	44	...	...	62
Public garden, survey of land, fire and other charges.	2,305	1,299	1,338	763	687	546	345	402	523	411	578	525	504	433	492
TOTAL ...	**6,228**	**5,134**	**5,243**	**5,593**	**5,534**	**1,394**	**1,212**	**1,347**	**1,926**	**1,833**	**1,725**	**1,469**	**1,530**	**1,340**	**1,420**
MISCELLANEOUS.															
Supervision and management ...	3,422	3,190	3,424	3,295	3,342	1,097	1,115	1,124	1,224	1,144	1,277	1,224	1,522	1,542	1,522
Refunds	2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	60	...	...	...	1	...
Advances recoverable	...	95	27	13	53	1	150	14	...	...	376	73	547	1,160	181
Pensions and gratuities	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	20	20	13	...	...	...	...	...
Investments	...	...	...	6	6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
TOTAL ...	**3,424**	**3,285**	**3,451**	**3,314**	**3,401**	**1,098**	**1,265**	**1,158**	**1,244**	**1,217**	**1,653**	**1,297**	**2,069**	**2,703**	**1,703**
Grand Total ...	**40,930**	**38,145**	**42,995**	**41,696**	**46,059**	**12,813**	**13,005**	**12,582**	**14,532**	**15,160**	**13,768**	**12,849**	**17,731**	**16,138**	**15,801**

Statement showing the Incidence of the House Tax in each of the five years ending 1893–94.

Name of municipality.	Year.	Houses assessed. Under 8 As. Number.	Under 8 As. Amount.	8 As. to Rs. 1-8-0. Number.	8 As. to Rs. 1-8-0. Amount.	Rs. 1-8-0 to Rs. 5. Number.	Rs. 1-8-0 to Rs. 5. Amount.	Rs. 5 to Rs. 15. Number.	Rs. 5 to Rs. 15. Amount.	Rs. 15 to Rs. 30. Number.	Rs. 15 to Rs. 30. Amount.	Above Rs. 30. Number.	Above Rs. 30. Amount.	Total. Number.	Total. Amount.	Incidence per house. RS.	A.	P.
			RS.		RS.		RS.		RS.		RS.		RS.		RS.	RS.	A.	P.
Coimbatore.	1889-90 ...	...	...	3,383	2,659	1,998	5,405	310	2,287	29	614	41	2,898	5,761	13,863	2	6	6
	1890-91 ...	1,295	512	2,463	2,177	2,009	5,482	320	2,377	29	613	43	3,655	6,159	14,816	2	6	5
	1891-92 ...	1,333	526	2,428	2,175	2,033	5,597	305	2,281	29	588	46	3,862	6,174	15,029	2	6	11
	1892-93 ...	1,319	524	2,440	2,163	2,065	5,663	313	2,337	33	701	44	3,794	6,214	15,182	2	7	1
	1893-94 ...	1,327	527	2,464	2,195	2,061	5,661	320	2,416	35	719	44	3,848	6,251	15,366	2	7	4
Erode ...	1889-90 ...	196	84	693	661	701	1,789	88	675	16	332	8	629	1,702	4,170	2	7	1
	1890-91 ...	192	83	695	672	714	1,826	90	698	16	332	8	629	1,715	4,240	2	7	6
	1891-92 ...	190	82	706	684	732	1,881	90	698	16	332	8	629	1,742	4,306	2	7	7
	1892-93 ...	203	88	738	721	737	1,896	94	733	17	351	8	634	1,797	4,423	2	7	5
	1893-94 ...	222	95	756	756	743	1,980	128	964	18	375	9	669	1,876	4,839	2	9	3
Karúr ...	1889-90 ...	401	150	906	730	652	1,528	50	296	3	49	2	632	2,014	3,385	1	10	11
	1890-91 ...	378	141	930	771	692	1,663	80	470	3	53	3	664	2,086	3,762	1	12	0
	1891-92 ...	410	161	951	774	699	1,680	82	480	3	42	4	669	2,149	3,806	1	12	4
	1892-93 ...	399	163	927	788	678	1,700	80	492	3	42	4	675	2,091	3,860	1	13	6
	1893-94 ...	414	238	946	843	681	1,710	83	497	5	75	4	648	2,133	4,011	1	14	1

CHAP. XVII. LOCAL BOARDS.

Local affairs outside the three municipal towns are administered by the district board with the assistance of five [1] taluk boards and 24 unions. The population of the district board's jurisdiction is 1,935,376, *i.e.*, the population of the district less the inhabitants of the municipal towns. The board consists of a president (the Collector) and 32 members, one of whom is appointed vice-president. The 32 members consist of the four divisional officers, who are *ex-officio* members, 12 nominated members, and 16 members who are elected by the taluk boards. The five taluk boards are Coimbatore, Erode, Pollâchi, Satyamangalam and Kollégâl. The local fund taluk of Erode comprises the revenue taluks of Bhavâni, Dhârâpuram, Erode and Karûr, and the Pollâchi taluk board has jurisdiction over the revenue taluks of Palladam, Pollâchi and Udamalpet. The limits of the other three taluk boards correspond to those of the revenue taluks of the same names. The Erode taluk board has 20 members and that of Pollâchi 16, while each of the others consists of 12 members. These are all nominated. The following are the 24 unions :—

Statement showing the Constitution of Union Panchâyats in 1893–94.

Taluk boards.	Union panchâyats.	Maximum number of members sanctioned.	Number of members on 31st March 1894.			
			Official.		Non-official.	Total.
			Village officers.	Others.		
1. Coimbatore.	1. Méttuppâlaiyam ...	9	2	1	6	9
	2. Singânallûr	9	1	...	8	9
	3. Kuniyamuttûr	9	1	...	8	9
	4. Settippâlaiyam	9	1	...	8	9
	5. Kuric'chi	9	2	...	7	9
2. Erode ...	1. Perundurai	9	1	...	8	9
	2. Bhavâni	9	1	1	7	9
	3. Aravakkuric'chi ...	9	1	1	7	9
	4. Pallapatti	9	1	...	8	9
	5. Dhârâpuram	11	3	...	8	11
	6. Kângayam	9	1	...	8	9
	7. Sinna Dhârâpuram ...	5	1	...	4	5
3. Pollâchi ...	1. Pollâchi	9	1	...	8	9
	2. Véttaikkâranpudûr ...	9	1	1	7	9
	3. Ânaimalai	9	1	1	7	9
	4. Palladam	9	2	1	6	9
	5. Sûlûr	9	1	1	7	9
	6. Tiruppûr	9	1	2	6	9
	7. Udamalpet	9	2	...	7	9
4. Satyamangalam.	1. Satyamangalam ...	9	1	1	7	9
	2. Gópichettipâlaiyam ...	11	2	1	8	11
5. Kollégâl ...	1. Kollégâl	12	2	...	10	12
	2. Perundalaiyûr	5	1	...	4	5
	3. Kempanâyakkanpâlaiyam	5	1	...	4	5

[1] The revenue taluks of Coimbatore and Satyamangalam have since been constituted a single taluk board called the Coimbatore taluk board. There are, therefore, only four taluk boards and their local areas coincide with those of the revenue divisions of the district.

CHAP. XVII. LOCAL BOARDS. — Receipts.

The subjoined statement shows the receipts and charges of the local boards. For further detail reference can be made to the tables at the end of the chapter :—

Statement of Local Fund Receipts and Charges (Average of 1889–90 *to* 1893–94).

—	Receipts.	Percentage.	—	Charges.	Percentage.
	RS.			RS.	
Cess on lands ...	1,99,806	58·00	Communications.	1,60,863	46·00
Tolls ...	49,674	14·42	Other public works & establishments.	46,050	13·17
House-tax ...	5,435	1·58	Education ...	48,995	14·01
Education ...	11,126	3·23	Medical services and sanitation ...	70,119	20·05
Contributions from Provincial funds.	13,972	4·06	Other items ...	23,664	6·77
Other items ...	64,471	18·71			
TOTAL ...	**3,44,484**	**100·00**	TOTAL ...	**3,49,691**	**100·00**

The average annual income of the district and taluk boards and the unions during the five years 1889–90 to 1893–94, was Rs. 3,44,484, and the average expenditure during the same period amounted to Rs. 3,49,691. The season of 1891–92 was very unfavourable and necessitated the outlay of a large sum on special works for the relief of the distressed. Excluding that year, the average annual income was Rs. 3,48,872 and the average expenditure Rs. 3,32,269. The incidence per head of the population was for income 2 annas and 11 pies and for expenditure 2 annas and 9 pies. Of the total income 48·05 per cent. went to the district board and 51·95 per cent. to the taluk boards and unions, while of the expenditure the former bore 26·15 per cent. and the latter 73·85 per cent. The chief source of income is the land-cess, which is levied on all occupied land at the rate of 1 anna in the rupee on the rental. This tax yields approximately Rs. 2,00,000, or about 58 per cent. of the total revenue. Tolls and the house-tax are the only other taxes.

In 1893–94 the house-tax was in force in 19 unions, and the average rate per house taxed was 8 annas and 8 pies, the average for all unions in the presidency being 8 annas and 9 pies. The tax produced Rs. 10,964 in 1893–94 against only Rs. 1,031 in 1889–90. The income from tolls amounted to Rs. 55,729 in 1893–94. There were 12 toll-gates at the end of that year: at 7 of them the maximum rate of tolls was levied and at 4 half rates; at the remaining one the rate charged was only one-fourth the maximum. The total income from taxation amounted in the same year to Rs. 2,84,934, or 2 annas and 4 pies per head of the population, the average for the presidency being 3 annas.

CHAP. XVII. LOCAL BOARDS.

Receipts.

The principal sources of income other than taxation are contributions from provincial funds chiefly in aid of education, school-fees, market and fishery rents and avenues. The receipts from the last three sources are included under 'Miscellaneous' in the appended statement. In 1893–94 there were 1,310 miles of road with avenues, and the number of trees in the avenues at the end of the year was 206,711. The total income from avenues amounted to Rs. 2,543, which gives a revenue of Rs. 1·94 per mile and an income of Rs. 12·30 for every thousand trees. These rates compare very unfavourably with those for the neighbouring districts of Salem, Trichinopoly, Madura and Malabar. In the first-mentioned district the income is Rs. 34 a mile and Rs. 194 per thousand trees.

The receipts under 'contributions from provincial funds' were unusually large in 1892–93: this is due to the inclusion of the amount (Rs. 14,000) sanctioned by Government to meet the outlay incurred on famine relief works. Under the head of 'miscellaneous debt accounts'" large sums appear to have been realized in 1892–93 and 1893–94; the receipts in the former year include a sum of Rs. 9,147 deposited by toll and other contractors for the due fulfilment of their contracts, while the receipts of the latter year not only include deposits of the value of Rs. 18,167, but also the amount of the loan, viz., Rs. 16,000, raised for the Pollâchi market.

Expenditure.

Nearly two-thirds of the expenditure of the local boards is on account of roads and buildings and the engineering establishment required for their maintenance. Particulars of the communications of the district will be found in chapter VII, but it may be stated here that there are 1,537 miles of road maintained by the taluk boards. The average cost of maintaining each mile of road, including village roads, was Rs. 87–14–0 in 1893–94, Rs. 85 in 1892–93 and Rs. 90 in 1891–92. The main roads are generally in very good order, but some roads in the outlying parts of the district are not satisfactory. The ratio between the cost of the engineering establishment and the total amount expended on public works fluctuates somewhat as noted on the margin, for the spreading of materials is often stopped owing to an unfavourable season. A very large proportion of the expenditure on roads is for repairs. The other chief objects of expenditure are education, hospitals and dispensaries, sanitation and vaccination, and these subjects have already been dealt with separately.

Percentage of establishment to total charges.

1889–90	14·14
1890–91	13·03
1891–92	11·58
1892–93	15·49
1893–94	15·20

Statement showing the Receipts under Local Funds.

Year.	Rates and Taxes.											
	Cess on lands.			Tolls.			House-tax.			Total.		
	District.	Taluk and Union.	Total.	District.	Taluk and Union.	Total.	District.	Taluk and Union.	Total.	District.	Taluk and Union.	Total.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.
1889-90	1,02,811	1,02,811	**2,05,622**	42,389	...	**42,389**	...	1,031	**1,031**	1,45,200	1,03,842	**2,49,042**
1890-91	92,368	92,368	**1,84,736**	46,790	...	**46,790**	...	2,681	**2,681**	1,39,158	95,049	**2,34,207**
1891-92	96,793	96,792	**1,93,585**	51,065	...	**51,065**	...	5,149	**5,149**	1,47,858	1,01,941	**2,49,799**
1892-93	98,422	98,422	**1,96,844**	52,398	...	**52,398**	...	7,349	**7,349**	1,50,820	1,05,771	**2,56,591**
1893-94	1,09,120	1,09,121	**2,18,241**	55,729	...	**55,729**	...	10,964	**10,964**	1,64,849	1,20,085	**2,84,934**
TOTAL ...	**4,99,514**	**4,99,514**	**9,99,028**	**2,48,371**	...	**2,48,371**	...	**27,174**	**27,174**	**7,47,885**	**5,26,688**	**12,74,573**
AVERAGE ...	**99,903**	**99,903**	**1,99,806**	**49,674**	...	**49,674**	...	**5,435**	**5,435**	**1,49,577**	**1,05,338**	**2,54,915**

Statement showing the Receipts under Local Funds—cont.

Year.	Education.			Medical.			Interest.			Miscellaneous.		
	District.	Taluk and Union.	Total.	District.	Taluk and Union.	Total.	District.	Taluk and Union.	Total.	District.	Taluk and Union.	Total.
	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25
	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.
1889-90	1,062	10,237	**11,299**	...	208	**208**	4	764	**768**	128	44,894	**45,022**
1890-91	996	8,889	**9,885**	...	188	**188**	4	742	**746**	51	51,717	**51,768**
1891-92	947	8,793	**9,740**	94	111	**205**	...	749	**749**	222	47,547	**47,769**
1892-93	642	10,872	**11,514**	901	827	**1,728**	...	706	**706**	115	53,008	**53,123**
1893-94	698	12,495	**13,193**	653	229	**882**	...	706	**706**	90	54,490	**54,580**
TOTAL ...	**4,345**	**51,286**	**55,631**	**1,648**	**1,563**	**3,211**	**8**	**3,667**	**3,675**	**606**	**2,51,656**	**2,52,262**
AVERAGE ...	**869**	**10,257**	**11,126**	**329**	**313**	**642**	**2**	**733**	**735**	**121**	**50,331**	**50,452**

CHAP. XVII. LOCAL BOARDS. Statistics.

Statement showing the Receipts under Local Funds—cont.

Year.	Public works.			Contributions from Provincial Funds.			Miscellaneous debt accounts.			Allotments.	Total Receipts.		
	District.	Taluk and Union.	Total.	District.	Taluk and Union.	Total.	District.	Taluk and Union.	Total.	Taluk and Union.	District.	Taluk and Union.	Total.*
	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38
	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.
1889–90	1,772	1,097	2,869	2,325	7,355	9,680	1,012	62	1,074	84,536	1,51,503	2,52,995	3,19,962
1890–91	168	3,033	3,201	3,250	9,805	13,055	1,030	308	1,338	76,974	1,44,657	2,46,705	3,14,388
1891–92	220	1,142	1,362	3,515	8,565	12,080	3,873	1,354	5,227	75,232	1,56,729	2,45,434	3,26,931
1892–93	262	630	892	14,841	10,135	24,976	10,892	63	10,955	75,027	1,78,473	2,57,039	3,60,485
1893–94	192	209	401	60	10,009	10,069	29,317	6,573	35,890	81,756	1,95,859	2,86,552	4,00,655
TOTAL ...	2,614	6,111	8,725	23,991	45,869	69,860	46,124	8,360	54,484	3,93,525	8,27,221	12,88,725	17,22,421
AVERAGE ...	523	1,222	1,745	4,798	9,174	13,972	9,225	1,672	10,897	78,705	1,65,444	2,57,745	3,44,484

* The figures in this column do not include allotments from district to taluk or from taluk to union funds, or payments from district to taluk funds on account of loans from taluk fund balances.

Statement showing the Charges under Local Funds.

Year.	Public Works.											
	Communications.			Buildings.			Miscellaneous public improvements.			Establishment and contingencies, &c.		
	District.	Taluk and Union.	Total.	District.	Taluk and Union.	Total.	District.	Taluk and Union.	Total.	District.	Taluk and Union.	Total.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.
1889-90	35,623	1,08,903	1,44,526	2,756	4,090	6,846	...	5,322	5,322	7,461	21,526	28,987
1890-91	47,964	1,18,095	1,66,059	307	7,332	7,639	244	7,218	7,462	8,938	21,836	30,774
1891-92	1,04,318	1,09,903	2,14,221	558	10,706	11,264	389	7,356	7,744	17,824	17,058	34,882
1892-93	41,349	98,036	1,39,385	83	6,629	6,712	317	7,460	7,777	9,196	22,759	31,955
1893-94	34,654	1,05,469	1,40,123	...	5,953	5,953	437	5,625	6,062	8,095	22,775	30,870
TOTAL ...	2,63,908	5,40,406	8,04,314	3,704	34,710	38,414	1,387	32,980	34,367	51,514	1,05,954	1,57,468
AVERAGE ...	52,782	1,08,081	1,60,863	741	6,942	7,683	277	6,596	6,873	10,303	21,191	31,494

Statement showing the Charges under Local Funds—cont.

Year.	Public Works—*cont.* Total.			Education.			Medical services, sanitation, &c.			Miscellaneous.		
	District.	Taluk and Union.	Total.	District.	Taluk and Union.	Total.	District.	Taluk and Union.	Total.	District.	Taluk and Union.	Total.
	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25
	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.
1889-90 ...	45,840	1,39,841	**1,85,681**	12,197	30,170	**42,367**	12,376	49,485	**61,861**	9,412	15,892	**25,304**
1890-91 ...	57,453	1,54,481	**2,11,934**	13,938	34,590	**48,528**	12,141	47,227	**59,368**	9,896	5,937	**15,833**
1891-92 ...	1,23,089	1,45,022	**2,68,111**	14,728	39,442	**54,170**	13,324	62,555	**75,879**	9,305	6,930	**16,235**
1892-93 ...	50,945	1,34,884	**1,85,829**	6,779	43,049	**49,828**	15,141	61,110	**76,251**	10,364	7,836	**18,200**
1893-94 ...	43,186	1,39,822	**1,83,008**	5,948	44,135	**50,083**	15,055	62,182	**77,237**	10,978	9,554	**20,532**
TOTAL ...	**3,20,513**	**7,14,050**	**10,34,563**	**53,590**	**1,91,386**	**2,44,976**	**68,037**	**2,82,559**	**3,50,596**	**49,955**	**46,149**	**96,104**
AVERAGE ...	**64,103**	**1,42,810**	**2,06,913**	**10,718**	**38,277**	**48,995**	**13,607**	**56,512**	**70,119**	**9,991**	**9,230**	**19,221**

Statement showing the Charges under Local Funds—cont.

Year.	Total.			Allotments.		Debt head charges.			Total charges.		
	District.	Taluk and Union.	Total.	District.	Taluk and Union.	District.	Taluk and Union.	Total.	District.	Taluk and Union.	Total.*
	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36
	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.
1889-90	79,825	2,35,388	**3,15,213**	70,155	14,381	1,014	70	**1,084**	1,50,994	2,49,839	**3,16,297**
1890-91	93,428	2,42,235	**3,35,663**	66,832	10,142	1,030	612	**1,642**	1,61,290	2,52,989	**3,37,305**
1891-92	1,60,446	2,53,949	**4,14,395**	63,600	11,632	3,872	1,110	**4,982**	2,27,918	2,66,691	**4,19,377**
1892-93	83,229	2,46,879	**3,30,108**	60,860	14,167	1,988	132	**2,120**	1,46,077	2,61,178	**3,32,228**
1893-94	75,167	2,55,693	**3,30,860**	68,820	12,936	11,886	501	**12,387**	1,55,873	2,69,130	**3,43,247**
TOTAL ...	**4,92,095**	**12,34,144**	**17,26,239**	**3,30,267**	**63,258**	**19,790**	**2,425**	**22,215**	**8,42,152**	**12,99,827**	**17,48,454**
AVERAGE ...	**98,419**	**2,46,829**	**3,45,248**	**66,053**	**12,652**	**3,958**	**485**	**4,443**	**1,68,430**	**2,59,966**	**3,49,691**

* The figures in this column do not include allotments from district to taluk or from taluk to union funds, or payments from district to taluk funds on account of loans from taluk fund balances.

Statement showing the Incidence of House-tax for 1893–94.

Names of unions in which the tax is levied.	Population as per census of 1891.	Number of houses as per census of 1891.	Rate of tax.	Number of houses finally assessed. First class. Number.	First class. Amount.	Second class. Number.	Second class. Amount.	Third class. Number.	Third class. Amount.	Fourth class. Number.	Fourth class. Amount.	Fifth class. Number.	Fifth class. Amount.	Sixth class. Number.	Sixth class. Amount.	Total. Number.	Total. Amount.	Average assessment per house taxed.
					RS.		RS.		RS.		RS.		RS.		RS.		RS.	RS. A. P.
Méttuppálaiyam ...	8,832	1,635	Maximum.	38	190	49	147	52	104	200	200	355	177	1,066	267	1,760	1,085	0 9 10
Singánallúr ...	8,719	1,727		2	10	10	30	30	60	110	110	209	105	462	115	823	430	0 8 4
Kuniyamuttúr ...	7,308	1,289		5	25	9	27	27	54	85	85	240	120	324	81	690	392	0 9 1
Settippálaiyam ...	3,173	672		...	...	6	18	50	100	194	194	251	126	285	71	786	509	0 10 4
Kuric'chi	5,747	891		7	35	3	9	8	16	138	138	136	68	273	68	565	334	0 9 6
Dhárápuram ...	15,398	3,040		23	115	78	234	123	246	362	362	611	306	1,768	442	2,965	1,705	0 9 2
Pallapatti	7,653	1,634	½ Max.	11	27	40	60	137	137	254	127	444	111	965	121	1,851	583	0 5 0
Polláchi	5,805	981	Max.	32	160	66	198	69	138	233	233	414	207	397	99	1,211	1,035	0 13 8
Ánaimalai	6,343	1,364	½ Max.	16	40	16	24	93	93	183	92	257	64	614	77	1,179	390	0 5 3
Véttaikkáranpudúr.	7,725	1,877	Max.	1	5	20	60	140	280	136	136	407	203	568	142	1,272	826	0 10 5
Palladam	6,140	1,229	Do.	6	30	40	120	50	100	195	195	251	126	601	150	1,143	721	0 10 1
Súlúr	4,713	904	½ Max.	19	47	42	63	46	46	135	68	255	64	519	65	1,016	353	0 5 7
Tiruppúr	5,235	905	Max.	44	220	92	276	109	218	220	220	252	126	159	40	876	1,100	1 4 1
Udamalpet ...	9,968	1,755	Do.	4	20	41	123	75	150	343	343	653	326	936	234	2,052	1,196	0 9 4
Satyamangalam ...	6,935	1,447	½ Max.	21	53	74	111	174	174	337	168	343	85	349	44	1,298	635	0 7 10
Gópichettipálaiyam.	8,002	1,576	Do.	52	130	78	117	121	121	175	88	234	58	844	105	1,504	619	0 6 7
Kempanáyakkan-pálaiyam.	3,162	779	Do.	4	10	11	17	62	62	222	111	273	68	178	22	750	290	0 6 2
Perundalaiyúr ...	6,892	814	Do.	1	3	2	3	26	26	191	95	507	127	137	17	864	271	0 5 0
Kollégál	12,011	1,903	Do.	64	160	90	135	180	180	507	253	727	182	718	90	2,286	1,000	0 7 0
TOTAL ...	136,761	26,413		350	1,280	767	1,772	1,572	2,305	4,220	3,218	6,819	2,649	11,163	2,250	24,891	13,474	0 8 8

CHAPTER XVIII.

ECONOMIC CONDITION.[1]

CH. XVIII. THE RYOT. General.

THE term 'Ryot' includes all those owning land except poligars; they may best be described as peasant proprietors holding direct from Government, and complete *de facto* owners of a share of the land, subject only to the payment of the assessment; labourer-cultivators, men owning no land but mere tenants, or perhaps mere labourers, are not included in this term. But, as shown below, owing to the pressure of population on soil, the universality of marriage at a tolerably early age, the rapidity of reproduction, the custom of equal family division, and the non-recognition of the natural limits of the soil, the ryot class continually supplies the classes below, viz., the labourer-ryots, labourer-tenants and mere labourers. There being practically no industries other than agriculture open to the agricultural class, the surplus population which cannot find room in cultivating the hereditary farms, or is ousted from them by debt or misfortune, cannot turn to factories or towns for subsistence as in European countries, nor has it the outlet of emigration. Hence a large number of almost paupers, continually supplied from above until a famine sweeps off its myriads. The agricultural practice, knowledge and position of the ryot have been discussed in the chapter on Agriculture in the first volume; it remains to notice his status or general position, which under the Coimbatore system is noteworthy.

Status. This system has no middlemen between the State and the cultivator; the land of the district is divided into fields, each of which bears a fixed assessment, and any person soever who requires a field not already in another's possession can have it by simply applying to the Revenue officer; if there is competition, the matter is decided according to certain rules. The State charges no price or fee for granting the field, which once granted, becomes the indefeasible property for cultivation of the ryot, who can deal with

[1] I have made but few additions to, or alterations in, this excellent chapter, the first of its kind to appear in any district manual; the figures given, therefore, are not always the latest, though, where the argument was not affected by the change, I have brought the statistics up to date and a few paragraphs have been re-written. In revising the chapter I received much assistance from Mr. H. Subbarâya Aiyar, a Deputy Collector of Coimbatore.—ED.

CH. XVIII. THE RYOT. — Status.

it at pleasure. He is not allowed to destroy the land, and mineral rights are now reserved in the pattás granted, but for all other purposes the land is his own property, subject only to the payment of the assessment to the State.

The system of individual responsibility is not of British introduction, but, with modifications and many irregularities, has been immemorial in the district; the Hindu Rájás of Mysore had their survey and field assessment, which was continued and modified under Musalman rule. Neither the pálaiyapat nor the village revenue system ever flourished in modern times in Coimbatore; the assessment was almost invariably levied individually and not collectively. Writing in 1827 Mr. J. Sullivan stated that even before the British advent "joint property" (by the village community) "had scarcely an existence in Coimbatore"; and that "in "these provinces the ryotwar survey (1800–1) did not in the slightest "degree disturb the existing state of property; no man was dis-"possessed either of his field or of his farm; each was registered in "the name of its occupant, its value was ascertained, and its rent "fixed." In 1834 Mr. Drury stated in answer to questions from the Imperial Government that "the Coimbatore ryotwar system was founded on the custom of the country," and this custom is alluded to by Buchanan, who saw in two places the field accounts of Chikka Déva Rájá of Mysore. Owing, however, to the large share of the produce that was formerly taken as assessment, amounting in the last century to 33 per cent. of the gross yield (50 to 60 on wet lands), and early in this century to 24 per cent., property in land was then, in general, of little value, and Mr. Sullivan states that in 1815, at the close of the temporary village rental system, no land other than garden was saleable. In these garden lands the ryots had a peculiar proprietary right called ádhínam, whilst even on other lands they were "fixed in their farms as proprietors," and a ryot entering into possession obtained "complete and indefeasible possession" (Drury). These remarks, coupled with Mr. Sullivan's assertion that the present system merely continued and did not disturb former rights, show that the individual ryot had been continuously regarded as the actual proprietor of the fields that he occupied. This indefeasible proprietary possession has never been disturbed except by the fortunately abortive effort to manufacture zemindári estates, the preliminary to which, viz., that of village rentals, closed in 1815 with "calamitous consequences to the ryot" (Sullivan). Since there is no restriction to the occupation or sub-division of land, the whole district is now broken up into over 200,000 small properties, occupied by about as many families consisting of at least one million persons, so that the land

Status.

in Coimbatore is truly 'nationalised.' This land can be parted with and dealt with in any way, and is the estate of the ryot so long as he pays his assessment.

The assessment has been called rent; this is not wholly correct in the economical sense of the word, since it is a fixed charge settled more or less arbitrarily for a series of years and is liable to increase only upon proof of general progress; it bears no automatically adjusted relation to the difference between the produce of the best and worst lands in cultivation, and is levied, though at low rates, upon every field, whether such field can yield economic rent or not. It is therefore partially economic rent so far as regards the classes of land above the 'margin of cultivation,' and in the better classes it may and does take only a fraction of that rent; in the lowest classes, in which economic rent cannot exist, it appears to be a mere land tax, which is paid simply when and because the State landlord can exact it, and in so far as it is paid it raises the price of produce.[2] It is, however, this land which is cultivated by paupers and for which payment of the assessment is, by consequence, largely evaded. The land in Coimbatore has always been held to be the property of the State or commonwealth; this property may be handed over for cultivation to the ryot, or withheld, but once handed over is, *quoad hoc*, the ryot's indefeasible property, to use, alienate, or bequeath, as he thinks fit, subject only to the payment of the assessment. The result therefore is that the tenure is that of a proprietor paying a rent or tax as interest for the use of a share of the landed property of the commonwealth. At one-tenth of the gross produce, this interest amounts to about the ordinary interest on money, and the rate falls as money becomes cheaper. On the higher classes of land it is a lower rate, in the low classes of land a higher rate. It must not be forgotton however that as on the one hand much of the large produce on the better classes of land is due to the ryot's own capital, as in gardens, so in the other case, as on wet lands, it is due to outlay by the State; hence in the former case a low assessment may really be a full economic rent, and in the latter a high assessment may be a low economic rent, the excess being interest upon State outlay. Two Collectors of the greatest experience and sympathy with the ryots, and to this day remembered with affection throughout the district, viz., Mr. J. Sullivan (1815–30) and Mr. E. B. Thomas (1849–62), have repeatedly recorded their opinion as to the lightness of the assessment and the comfortable circumstances of the ryot, and the latter has contrasted the position

[2] An interesting discussion upon the question whether the land revenue is a tax or rent will be found in the Hon'ble Mr. S. Srínivása Rághavaiyangár's *Progress of the Madras Presidency during the last Forty Years*, pp. 102-106.—ED.

CH. XVIII. THE RYOT. Status.

of the Coimbatore peasant proprietor with that of the English tenant farmer in the following remarks in his Jamabandi report for fasli 1265:—

"The Coimbatore settlement is now, to all intents and purposes, "a permanent settlement, under real ryotwar, and I cannot "honestly see what more could be desired for the ryot; he is "certainly content, if allowed to be so; his assessment is light, "fixed, unvarying, on the soil, not the crop; he grows what he "pleases without enquiry; his lease is permanent—it runs on for "as many years as he chooses unchanged, but he can reduce or "enlarge his farm *ad libitum* by simply making known his wish; "any labour and capital he sinks in improvements is entirely "untaxed; he reaps the whole benefit. An English farmer has "not a perpetual lease; he cannot contract or enlarge his holding "at pleasure, he is bound down to a rotation of crops, he must not "unfairly rack his land, he is liable to visits from his landlord to "see what state he keeps his farm and buildings in, can cut no "timber, and on various points is really far less free than the "Coimbatore ryot, and as to the security of the tenure, the best "practical test of the ryot's opinion of its safety is, that irrigated "land (for rice) will sell readily for twenty and thirty years' pur-"chase (of the rent [3]), garden from fifteen to twenty, and even dry "poonjy; if good, for five and seven."

To this remark as to the security of the tenure may be added that during the actual progress of the new settlement enquiries prior to 1877, the price for lands of all kinds was higher than it had ever been before, showing the confidence of the ryots that Government would impose on them no inequitable increase of assessment, a confidence begotten of long security and of trust in official declarations. That the confidence was well founded is shown by the fact that the settlement increase practically corresponded with the increase found by an accurate survey, and while it occasionally equalized, it did not appreciably raise the average assessment per actual acre.

Comparison with European peasant proprietors.

If the Coimbatore ryot is compared with the peasant proprietors of Europe, he undoubtedly suffers by the comparison. In mere agriculture he is behind them, not so much in empirical knowledge as in energy of practice. While their science of farming may be summed up in the phrase—"They adopt the experience and maxims of their predecessors"—used by Mr. Kay regarding the peasants of France, they are entirely behind those peasants in

[3] 'Rent' here means 'assessment.'

Comparis with Euro pean peas proprieto

devotion to the land; the minute and patient industry with which the French ryots cultivate it, the assiduity with which they spend every possible moment on it, the economy with which they utilise every foot of it, and the thrift—amounting almost to miserliness—with which they deny themselves in food and pleasure in order to devote more capital to it, find little parallel amongst the Coimbatore ryots, and a striking feature of Coimbatore rural economy is the want of energy and thrift in dealing with space and time; labour is abundant, and, during parts of the year when crops are unusual, might be usefully applied in making improvement; fruit trees, such as crowd the European farms, or, the property of the peasants, border continental roads for hundreds of miles, are hardly to be found in Coimbatore. But if behind the French peasantry, whose ignorance is reported to be so considerable (Kay's *Free Trade in Land*, &c.), they still more suffer by comparison with the admirable peasantry of Switzerland, Saxony, and Prussia, where general and agricultural education has for many years not only been systematically fostered by the State, but eagerly sought by the peasantry themselves. Allowing that these latter advantages are, by no fault of the ryots, largely wanting in Coimbatore, it still remains that they fall short of the position of the French peasants. The Coimbatore ryot has to pay a land tax equal to about one-tenth of his gross produce, and to this might be attributed some of his backwardness. But it must be pointed out that in Europe not only are immense prices or rents paid for land by the peasant farmer, but his annual taxes on land, house, windows, chimneys, servants, &c., for State, local, and communal purposes, average from 2 to 3 rupees per acre (Belgium, &c.); while his transfer duties are very high, amounting to about 10 per cent. on sales (Blue Book of 'Agricultural Interests Commission,' 1881). When a French peasant can and does pay up to and above Rs. 1,200 per acre for ordinary unirrigated land, bear the cost of cultivation, pay considerable taxes on the land, pay off the shares of his brothers by mortgages at high interest, and yet as such savings that the French peasantry made light of subscribing the vast war indemnity several times over, there must be mental and moral qualities in that peasantry which are wanting in the Coimbatore ryot, who, with far less initial and subsequent burdens, and the facility and simplicity of life in a tropical climate, is in a decidedly inferior position, as regards capital, to the almost equally ignorant but admirably intelligent and prudent French peasant. Coimbatore history, in common with that of South India generally, explains this inferiority; the hopeless misgovernment which for centuries preceded British rule, ground the ryot into the dust, robbed him of all capital, and took away both the chance and the

CH. XVIII. THE RYOT.

Comparison with European peasant proprietors.

hope of rising to a higher level. Simultaneously with misrule there were the miseries of war, anarchy and barbarous invasions which swept off the ryots and their property, and, while checking population, robbed them of their means of support. The effect upon character was that universally seen in such cases, while the further effect followed of universal and early marriage and rapid reproduction, since the positive checks to population removed even more than the surplus, and abundant land permitted the potential support, however miserable, of families of any size. Hence by custom have arisen a low social standard and a habit of early and productive marriage; the former permitted, without social reprehension, free indulgence in the latter, while the latter perpetuated the former; hence the extreme difficulty of rising to a higher level. Moreover, the fact of all the cultivating neighbours being on a low level of social comfort prevents an effective desire for, or removes a great incentive to, progress; hence much of the tropical *laisser aller* methods of husbandry, such as the disinclination to economy in time and land or to exertion in unusual modes or seasons; hence also the habit of renting out land and living on the petty proceeds, and the careless expenditure of capital, often the proceeds of land mortgages, on mere unproductive display.

The prospects of the Coimbatore ryot may be suggested by a comparison; a French peasant proprietor, according to the best and most recent statements, though practised for generations in thrift which has degenerated into penuriousness, in industry which has hardened into unremitting toil for all members of his family, in prudence in marriage and reproduction which has led in the agricultural departments to actual retrogression of population, in skill which loses an opportunity neither in time nor space, is by the law of sub-division so straitened by the minuteness and *morcellement* of his estate, and so burdened by his load of mortgages, that, in spite of a fertile soil, a favourable climate, abundant markets for valuable products, and vast manufacturing enterprise for the absorption of population and rural produce, he can live only a narrow, unlovely, ignorant, parsimonious life, with no higher aim than that of saving money to pay off mortgages, to retain, or to add to his morsels of land. What then can be expected for the Coimbatore peasant proprietor not many years emancipated from the rigours of tyranny, from barbarous invasions, and from a tyrannous fiscal system; industrious, but not unremittingly so; skilled in his art by reason of the traditional knowledge of ages, but of a general ignorance surpassing that of the French peasant or of the British agricultural labourer; inclined to submissive acquiescence in failure owing to continual uncertainties of season, and to former uncertainties due to war and misrule; dwelling on a soil generally inhospit-

able, and in a climate of notoriously scant, often ill-distributed, and precarious rainfall; having but a moderate market for raw produce and no manufactures, and yet labouring under a normal increment of population of from 8 to 15 per cent. per decade owing to the universality of marriage at an early age and of unrestrained reproduction, and under a custom of absolutely equal sub-division among male heirs.

Comparison with European peasant proprietors.

Is it strange that, under these circumstances, the Coimbatore ryot, though enabled by a tropical climate to exist upon very scanty produce, or rather, being enabled by a tropical climate to live upon so little that population is free to multiply till the most miserable and treacherously arid soils are in cultivation, should be afflicted with poverty and liability to famine, and a heavy death-rate? Danger of famine is always within a measurable distance in Coimbatore, and each year of safety but intensifies the future danger. Well-irrigation alone prevents frequent minor famines.

A good system of general and agricultural education, and the growing independence and self-reliance of the ryot, must be looked to for slow improvement in these matters. Had general and agricultural education made equal strides with the advance of prices and property, the best Coimbatore peasant proprietary might now have compared favourably with that of Europe in its best parts; in spite of drawbacks the Coimbatore garden-owner, that is, the ryot who has sunk some capital in a field with a well, is usually in a fair position, has money in hand, can afford to lease out his property on a high rent, and usually displays an admirable diligence, fervour, and care in cultivation. It must be presumed that the possession of a valuable property, the prospect of a decent income, the necessity for getting returns on the capital sunk, and probably the very qualities which induced the sinking of the capital, materially develop the ryot's energy and prudence. More might yet be made out of the gardens if the example of the European peasants could be presented before the eyes of the Coimbatore ryots.[4]

Indebtedness of the ryot.

There are few data for ascertaining the indebtedness or solvency of the Coimbatore ryot. General experience seems to be that except near towns, and where land is very valuable, as in the black soils of Udamalpet, the ryots are not much in debt; and that elsewhere, if in debt, the ryot's creditor is usually another ryot, and not a professional usurer, as shown by the comparatively small number of suits and their nature. In the places noted, the ryot is

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[4] See chapter v. of the first volume.

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Indebtedness of the ryot.

said to have yielded to the charming of the usurer, who has now got hold of many of the best lands. Paradoxical as it seems, the ryots are indebted largely because of the sudden increment of wealth begotten by high prices of grain and land. In the earlier days, when court process was difficult, tenures insecure, registration non-existent, roads bad and few, and prices very low, land had but little money value, and the usurer had therefore little inducement to lend, and little security for loans beyond the standing crops, cattle, &c., of the ryot; hence but few money-lenders and but small indebtedness. With the rise in prices came the influx of capital into the money-lending trade, and the ryot's temptation, which he proved unable to withstand; hence the above paradox, due largely to the fact that education has not progressed *pari passu* with other social changes. In Mr. Fergusson's words (*Indian Architecture*), "To a people in the state of "civilization to which India has reached, a secure title and a fixed "income only mean the power of borrowing, on the occasion of a "marriage, a funeral, or some great family festival, more than the "borrower can ever pay"; this is partially true of Coimbatore. The very marked predominance of small holdings, however, shows that there has been no extensive selling up of the ryot by the money-lender. During the past ten years the value of property dealt with in documents that have been registered has nearly doubled, and the number of documents registered has more than doubled, but it is difficult to judge how far this indicates an increase in indebtedness. The advance was continuous through good years and bad alike and under all classes of documents. Now it is easy to understand that sales of land may point rather to prosperity than the reverse, to an increase in the amount of capital seeking investment in land rather than to the poverty of the landowner. An increase in the number of mortgages no doubt shows that ryots are borrowing to a greater extent than formerly, and it will generally be concluded that this is a sign of declining prosperity, but here again it is possible that some of the increase may be due to landowners taking advantage of a favourable market to raise loans for the building of wells and the making of other improvements to their properties. Some portion of the increase, too, is undoubtedly due to an advance in the registration of transactions as distinguished from an increase in the number of transactions themselves.

The rate of interest varies considerably, but about 9 or 10 per cent. per annum may be taken as the normal rate for loans on good security, though for small sums and indifferent security, it may be double this, while for amounts exceeding Rs. 500 a lower rate is

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paid, the minimum being about 6 per cent. A special return obtained from the registry offices of Coimbatore, Kumárapálaiyam, and Ganapati shows that, according to a year's registrations, the amount borrowed at exactly 12 per cent. was Rs. 1,75,000, while the amount of the loans on which the interest was less than 12 per cent. was Rs. 1,95,000, and that on which it was above 12 per cent. was Rs. 51,000. Loans, however, are frequently made and repaid in grain, or they are made in money with a stipulation that they should be repaid in produce; in these cases the rate of interest is generally much higher than 12 per cent. and, the borrowers being usually in embarrassed circumstances, the conditions of the loan are greatly in favour of the lender. Small money loans again are often made by mere entry in an account current; a balance is struck at the end of the year and interest is paid on this balance.

Thrift.

Regarding the kindred subject of thrift there is not much to be said; the peasant proprietors are fairly thrifty, and spend their savings, at least to some extent, on land. The following statement of a Goundan's mode of allotting his net profits is interesting, not as an exact statement, but as indicating the objects of expenditure, viz., one-eighth for charity, three-eighths for gold and silver ornaments (a mode of hoarding), one-fourth for buying land, and one-fourth hoarded. The records of trials and complaints show that a good deal of silver is secreted in the walls of houses, &c., and Goundan females are admittedly frugal and saving; the digging of some 40,000 or 50,000 new irrigation wells, irrespective of failures, and the conversion of dry land into wet, since 1800, have absorbed considerable capital: the expenditure on gardens alone must have absorbed at least Rs. 100,00,000, a very respectable sum considering that money was formerly ten times, and is still five times, as valuable as in England, and that there are no capitalists to invest in agricultural improvements. But there are signs that the flood of material progress, which suddenly arose about 1855 from the great rise of prices, and from the actual and relative lowering of the assessment (viz., by the reduction on gardens, and in the fall of the value of money), outstripped the advance in education and intelligence, and that the increment of profit has not worked its full benefit, in that it has led rather to an extension than to a development of cultivation, and that it has begotten a facility for borrowing which has led to an increase in non-productive expenditure; in place of a high standard of comfort, of personal development, and of accumulation upon the estate, there has been a tendency to extravagance and to a scattering abroad. Moreover, the increase in the area of holdings has tended to cause a higher and quite abnormal rate of reproduction, owing to the

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readier divisibility of the farms,[5] it not being sufficiently considered that the extra land was too poor to give returns adequate to the increased demand. In 1871, Dr. Cornish (Census Report) expressly spoke of a recent abnormal reproduction, and in 1876 the ryots actually complained to Mr. Robertson, on his agricultural tour, that "their families now consisted of from four to five children, "whereas, twenty years ago, three to four children was the average "number in a family. They attribute the larger number of their "families to the reduced death-rate, many more children now sur- "viving to reach adult years.". In the absence of any reason whatever for so notable a decrease of the death-rate, it may be assumed that the increase was really caused by increased reproduction due to increased ease in supporting a family; high prices, when not produced by scarcity, mean prosperity to the ryot class.

Amongst the upper classes there has been probably less thrift; money has been lavishly expended and lands mortgaged to cover the expenditure; a year's income on a single marriage in the family is a very moderate outlay. Reaction has, however, set in among the better educated, many of whom suffer for the errors of their fathers, and the native banks recently established in Coimbatore, with branches, assist in developing thrift by the modes of deposit adopted or available, viz., the regular payment of a fixed monthly sum, regularity being enforced by stringent rules; these sums accumulate for a certain period, when the transactions are wound up and the money repaid in a lump.[6] This excellent plan of *quasi*-assurance has, it is believed, led many men to save up for social and other expenses at present considered necessary, instead of expending their full income on receipt and trusting to the money-lender for the future. Another mode of thrift is rapidly making way amongst educated men, viz., the habit of assuring life; a vigorous assurance office in another Presidency has several agencies in the district and many educated and prudent men have taken out policies; no words can too strongly commend this practice.

Co-operation.

This has to some extent disappeared in Coimbatore, while in some cases it was only rudimentary. The ancient village system was indeed one of co-operation, the village commune being a self-contained organism, an aggregation of which formed the whole

[5] Though pattás have not increased of late years, the number of names in each pattá certainly has; a few years ago it was usual to enter one name only; now there are sometimes 30.

[6] A full and interesting description of such Loan Societies will be found in vol. i. part ii. chap. iii. of Mr. Nicholson's *Report on Land and Agricultural Banks*, Madras, 1895. They correspond to, and are, indeed, derived from, the English and American Building Societies.—ED.

body politic; in this the lands were frequently shared in common, and periodically transferred; traces of this system were noticed by Macleod and Buchanan in 1800. By means of the common liability of all villagers to co-operate in a village work many large schemes were carried out, such as the digging of considerable channels and tanks. Village temples are to this day maintained by village subscription, and the podu selavu or úr selavu fund is used for many purposes, recognized and unrecognized. The channel system (*vide* 'Irrigation') was only kept up, as indeed it was probably started, by village co-operation, and it is the decline of this joint action, the substitution of the modern doctrine of self-interest, and the recognition of the individual as the social unit, that have given rise to much recent difficulty. In matters of cultivation partnership is still practised; a number of ryots plough the field of each one in turn; a garden is frequently worked or rented by a partnership of poor ryots, while the owner and cultivator of a garden occasionally share the expenses of cultivation. The idea of co-operation is present and may solve the difficulty of introducing European implements. But inasmuch as there is no science of agriculture, but merely tradition, and no perception even that there is any possible method outside their own, there are no agricultural societies for mutual advancement or stimulation. Co-operative credit banks on the German system [7] are not yet started, but the idea is indigenous; the germ of it is seen in the lottery system, where (say) 50 persons join together and pay a rupee or so per month; each month the Rs. 50 so subscribed is paid over to one or other member according to the fall of the lot, winning members being of course excluded from future chances, but not from the regular monthly payment. This method gives the command of a large sum speedily to some persons, and to each one in turn, and even those to whom payment comes latest get the benefits of enforced thrift for a long period. This with variations is a common practice, and the partners are said never to abuse the trust necessarily reposed on those who win at an early stage. The native banks recently started are admittedly credit banks and use their funds in granting money on

[7] These admirable institutions, apparently so adapted for India, are a notable feature in German industrial economics; by these associations single artisans obtain credit as members of an unlimited liability company; in 1877 no less than 1,827of these institutions were at work with above 1,000,000 members, £28,000,000 of capital actual and borrowed, and doing a business of £110,000,000—(Fawcett's *Political Economy*, 1883, pp. 273-4; and Marshall's *Economics of Industry*). [Reference should be made by all interested in this subject to Mr. Nicholson's *Report on Land and Agricultural Banks*, where a detailed account will be found of the constitution, methods and working of such institutions in Germany, Austria, Italy, &c. (vol. i. part i. chap. vi.).—ED.]

CH. XVIII. THE RYOT. — Co-operation.

good security, but the share system is peculiar and strictly co-operative or joint stock, as explained above. It appears, then, that with care the indigenous germ of co-operation might be revivified and fostered into an active and productive growth.

Political attitude of ryot.

As regards his political attitude the Coimbatore ryot cannot be better described than in Mr. W. T. Thornton's words regarding the European peasant proprietor; indeed in his position as an ignorant rustic, knowing little beyond the confines of his own village except the neighbouring markets or shrines, and as a highly conservative member of a village commune dating from far beyond recent Governments, the ryot is still more careless of political change than even the French peasant. Mr. Thornton says of the European ryot, "Provided neither his privileges nor his prejudices be "attacked, he cheerfully leaves politics to those who have more taste "and capacity for their discussion. The French peasant is no "politician; he leaves it to the inhabitants of cities to settle State "affairs. The countryman whom Inglis questioned on the subject "no doubt spoke the sentiments of his class when he said that 'all "Governments are alike to him so that they kept at peace and "'allowed him to live at home.'"[8] The ryot knows nothing of political changes unless they affect, as in 1811–17, his plot of land, his tenure, and the amount and mode of payment of his assessment; to him the personality of the local officer is far more than the impersonal and shadowy 'Sirkar or Government'; the greed of a local hireling surpasses the dangers from foreign foes, and a foreign war is infinitely less known or heeded than a possible invasion of his claims as a village factionary, as a member of a nádu or local division, as a right or left hand sectary, or as a Hindu.

TENANTS. Their status.

Every kind of tenancy is found; the casual tenant, who leases for a year the land now of one, now of another; the tenant, especially on inám lands, who occupies often from time immemorial, sometimes on a customary rent, sometimes on a rent varying from year to year; the váram or metayer tenants; tenants who enjoy the profit of land either wholly or in part as interest upon a loan; tenants who are so only in name, such as those ryots whose lands, often ancestral, are their own indefeasible property, but who have to pay the assessment to inámdárs instead of to Government, as in the case of many village ináms; tenants such as the regular ryots of pálaiyapats, who in this district are 'settled occupancy-ryots' having indefeasible rights, and are not removable so long as they pay the fixed customary rentals, which are the old survey rates settled by Government at the original settlement, payable in

[8] *A Plea for Peasant Proprietors*, by W. T. Thornton, C.B., 1873.

money, and recorded in the paimash accounts; these differ in nothing from Government rates, except that they have not been revised, and that the old garden assessment is still retained. Many tenants are men who have no land of their own, and live from hand to mouth by cultivating the lands of others; some own a small plot of land and eke out a livelihood by renting other lands.

Their status.

The status of these tenants is various; the highest position is occupied by those who are merely nominal tenants of inámdárs, and are really proprietors. Now that land is valuable, inámdárs frequently take vexatious action under Act VIII of 1865 in hopes of ousting these ryots. The status of pálaiyapat ryots has been noticed; that of other tenants is regulated by custom, but there are practically no settled rights for sub-tenants, save those created by specific contract.

The economic results of sub-tenancy have been indicated in the chapter on Agriculture; only poor ryots will cultivate at what is usually, on the bulk of the dry lands, a rack rent, affording a bare subsistence to the tenant; hence a slovenly and degraded agriculture on such lands. On the other hand, this class of cultivator is unfit, as a rule, for any higher position; he has no capital or means for proper cultivation, nor are his characteristics such as would tend to improvement. As indicated in a later part of this chapter, it is the economic position of this class that causes great anxiety. The tenant of a peasant proprietor (ryot) is notoriously rack-rented, and though custom largely governs and modifies the Coimbatore practice, yet it is evident that the ordinary rentals have increased since 1839, when the customary rent was half of the net produce, instead of half or two-thirds of the gross as now. Moreover, there are indications of further pressure being put upon this class, who are really tenants-at-will, though they frequently cultivate the same land for many years together; the landlords evince an inclination to turn out their customary tenants for casual bidders who offer higher rents. The position of the tenant is becoming less secure as competition increases, while the increased rent not only deducts from the capital available for actual cultivation, but tempts many ryots to prefer the scanty but easily earned income of a petty landlord to the greater abundance of a hard-working ryot-cultivator. The position of landlord and tenant requires defining and legalizing, and the introduction of longer leases at moderate rents is a *sine quâ non* for agricultural improvement on the poorer lands and for the social improvement of those who cultivate them as sub-lessees of the State property.

Rents.

The rental of lands is a very obscure subject, and is but slightly elucidated by registration records; in which but a very small

CH. XVIII. TENANTS. Rents.

proportion of leases finds place; nine-tenths of the leases are oral agreements, based on custom and between co-villagers. The understood practice on dry lands is 'half váram,' in which the tenant pays half of the gross produce to the landowner; the former bears the charges of cultivation, he and his family being usually the cultivators, and the latter pays the assessment. This is practically the metayer system, and has the advantage of combining the interests of the landlord and tenant, while it is elastic enough to provide for bad years, a contingency so frequent as to account for the prevalence of this tenure. On dry lands no conditions are usual other than those here given, and the cultivation is generally poor and frequently a mere catch crop; on garden lands the conditions as to the shares of expenses and receipts differ according to circumstances. It is unusual to impose conditions as to crops, manure, &c. A landlord, however, never permits a tenant to dig a well or erect a house on the land, or do anything that would tend to afford evidence of ownership; the objection to the digging of a well is intelligible, from the peculiar ádhínam right as regards well lands in Coimbatore, which gave the entire property in land to the man who owned the well in it. The result of settlement enquiries in 592 villages, all in the northern taluks, is tabulated (see Settlement Report) as follows:—

Description of land.	Cases in which one-fourth is paid to the pattádárs.	Cases in which one-third is paid to the pattádárs.	Cases in which two-fifths is paid to the pattádárs.	Cases in which one-half is paid to the pattádárs.	Cases in which two-thirds is paid to the pattádárs.	Total of all the columns.	Total cultivated area in 592 villages for which váram statements have been prepared.	Percentage of columns 7 and 8.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	ACS.	ACS.	ACS.	ACS.	ACS.	ACS.	ACS.	
Dry	200	...	50	99,204·16	1,401	**100,855·16**	...	...
Wet	...	...	...	7,070·76	670	**7,740·76**	...	...
Dry or Wet not distinguished ...	...	400	...	14,700·66	950	**16,050·66**	...	...
TOTAL ...	**200**	**400**	**50**	**120,975·58**	**3,021**	**124,646·58**	**844,314**	**15**

In 1839 the rent of the landlord was, for dry land, usually one-half, and for wet lands two-thirds of the net[9] profit (*i.e.*, after

[9] Letter of the Collector, dated 12th March 1839, on the condition of the district.

deducting cultivation charges), instead of, as at present, one-half and two-thirds or three-quarters, respectively, of the gross produce.

Rents.

A common rental on purely dry lands is twice the assessment; on the better wet lands, such as those of the upper half of the Kálingaráyan channel, a common rental is two-thirds or three-fourths of the grain to the landlord, who pays the assessment, the tenant retaining the other one-third or one-fourth and the whole of the straw, and incurring the cultivation charges. When valuable non-cereal crops are grown, a money rent is usually paid, and, as in other cases also, this often takes the form of a payment in full in advance, sometimes for several years' tenancy; sometimes the amount advanced is to be repaid by the landowner at the end of the tenancy, the profits of cultivation in such cases forming the interest on the loan. There are, of course, many kinds of rental and lease, but the above are the principal.

The following table has been furnished by the sub-registrars noted; the increase in the area leased since 1877 is due to the increased habits of registration since that date. The triennia are selected as being immediately before and shortly after the famine of 1877–78. Unimportant fractions have been omitted; the Dhárápuram figures for wet lands are in local grain measures:—

Office.	Triennium.	Wet.		Dry.		Garden.	
		Area leased.	Average annual rent per acre.	Area leased.	Average annual rent per acre.	Area leased.	Average annual rent per acre.
		ACS.	RS. A.	ACS.	RS. A.	ACS.	RS. A.
Coimbatore Registrar's office.	1872–75	374	32 2	823	8 1	510	14 10
	1880–83	768	33 3	2,989	6 9	613	12 6
Udamalpet ...	1872–75	167	35 2	567	2 0	203	3 3
	1880–83	183	26 7	2,127	2 5	714	4 13
Kángayam ...	1872–75	...	...	357	1 1⅓	4	3 4
	1880–83	...	Measures of rice.	1,781	1 4	49	7 1
Dhárápuram, ordinary leases in kind.	1872–75	43	580	93	0 9⅔	...	...
	1880–83	78	710	481	2 6¾	36	4 3
Dhárápuram (Ulavadaibhógyam, or mortgages for cultivation.	1872–75	194	615	...	...	...	...
	1880–83	147	725	56	0 14	11	6 6

The Coimbatore figures in dry and garden lands are high, owing to the proximity of good markets afforded by the town and Nílgiris,

CH. XVIII. TENANTS. Rents.

and the excellence of much of the lands (black); the wet lands are irrigated from tanks fed by the Nóyil. In Udamalpet the rates for gardens and dry lands appear very low, considering that much of the taluk is black-cotton soil. Kángayam has no wet lands, and the soils are very poor and unproductive. Dhárápuram has very poor dry soils, so that their rentals are very low, but its wet lands are superbly productive. The grain measure here entered contains 160 tolas of second-sort rice, and is therefore nearly one-fifth larger than the heaped Madras measure, and holds nearly 3 lbs. of paddy; hence the annual rentals vary from 1,720 to 2,150 lbs., or from about three-fourths to nearly 1 ton. At Rs. 4 per salagai of 80 measures, the money value is from Rs. 29 to Rs. 36¼; similarly the only money rented wet lands in the taluk for the triennia yielded Rs. 10 and Rs. 37½ per acre. These large rentals are paralleled by similar rents in Erode, Karúr and Satyamangalam; in Karúr rents up to 1,080 measures (of 144 tolas) are known on the best Cauvery irrigated lands, 720 being common. The ulavadaibhógyam is a *quasi*-mortgage in which a sum of money is given in advance, the interest thereon being deducted from the rent at the time of paying the latter. There has been a general tendency of rents to rise throughout the district, owing partly to the rise of prices and partly to an increase of valuable special crops, such as plantains, sugarcane, turmeric, &c.[10]

LABOURERS. Their position.

According to the census of 1891 the number of labourers, both actual workers and those dependent on them, is 337,394, of whom 56,056 are farm servants regularly employed by the year, 148,304 are other agricultural labourers and 133,034 are general labourers. The division into the three classes is not altogether trustworthy, but the figures may be taken as a rough approximation to the real numbers, though the number of farm servants is almost certainly greater than that given above.

The position of these labourers is always precarious, as they have practically no savings and a bad season with the consequent cessation of employment causes immediate suffering. The labourer's ordinary position, however, is far from being a bad one; work can always be obtained and the complaint is rather of want of labourers than of lack of work. The wages, too, are quite enough to supply the needs of the present, though they leave little margin for saving.

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[10] The annexed statement of the rentals reserved in registered leases during the triennium 1890-91 to 1892-93 has been kindly furnished by the Registrar of the district as this chapter was passing through the press. It shows very distinctly that rents have risen during the last ten years.—ED.

Statement of Rentals of Leases for the triennium 1890–91 *to* 1892–93.

Registration office.	Wet.		Dry.		Garden.		Remarks.
	Area leased.	Average annual rent per acre.	Area leased.	Average annual rent per acre.	Area leased.	Average annual rent per acre.	
	ACS.	RS. A. P.	ACS.	RS. A. P.	ACS.	RS. A. P.	
Coimbatore Registrar's office	1,157	45 2 0	216	5 1 8	170	10 10 0	These comprise Coimbatore taluk.
Ganapati Sub-Registrar's office	...	...	1,084	6 0 0	1,001	11 5 4	
Komárapálaiyam Sub-Registrar's office	649	37 8 0	3,012	4 0 0	905	9 0 0	
Méttuppálaiyam do.	243	48 4 3	69	8 9 8	224	10 6 3	
Periyanáyakkanpálaiyam do.	19	63 12 0	968	6 12 0	1,000	11 14 0	
Bhaváni Sub-Registrar's office	47	43 8 0	444	1 8 0	570	5 0 0	Bhaváni taluk.
Dhárápuram Sub-Registrar's office	75	72 6 7	2,001	2 7 1	705	5 0 0	Dhárápuram taluk.
Kángayam do.	2	54 5 6	2,557	1 14 10	538	5 11 1	
Erode Sub-Registrar's office	401	63 10 4	562	3 10 8	162	36 2 1	Erode taluk.
Kodumudi do.	209	49 0 0	690	2 0 0	98	14 0 0	
Perundurai do.	...	...	558	3 10 3	128	9 8 7	
Karúr do.	567	34 0 0	125	4 0 0	60	3 0 0	Karúr taluk.
Aravakkuric'chi Sub-Registrar's office	131	28 0 0	591	2 15 6	146	5 10 1	
Lakshmínáráyanasamudram Sub-Registrar's office.	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Kollégál Sub-Registrar's office	121	28 0 0	56	11 0 0	...	...	Kollégál taluk.
Palladam do.	...	...	2,207	3 14 1	1,368	8 5 1	Palladam taluk.
Avanási do.	1	39 0 0	444	6 2 10	506	9 12 8	
Súlúr do.	223	35 10 5	2,305	4 14 9	1,678	10 10 0	
Tiruppúr do.	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Pólláchi do.	14	18 0 0	4,981	3 0 0	4,929	6 0 0	Polláchi taluk.
Ánaimalai do.	1,284	28 11 9	2,285	4 1 10	608	7 12 5	
Satyamangalam Sub-Registrar's office	227	55 0 0	153	4 0 0	117	13 0 0	Satyámangalam taluk.
Gópichettipálaiyam do.	805	50 0 0	89	2 0 0	114	12 0 0	
Tálavádi	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Udamalpet Sub-Registrar's office	727	44 7 5	3,891	6 2 10	2,650	10 3 2	Udamalpet taluk.

CH. XVIII. LABOURERS.

Their position.

The labourers, indeed, have obtained quite their full share of the general prosperity that has followed the famine, and officers who have had some experience of the district will concur in the opinion of Mr. H. Subbaráya Aiyar, Deputy Collector, who states that, having had ample opportunities of observing and judging of the condition of the labouring classes during the last thirty years, he can confidently assert that it has improved in every way and is still improving. As evidence of this he mentions that many of the labouring castes, who not very long ago were slaves attached to the soil, are now beginning to acquire land. This opinion, based upon individual observation, is in entire accordance with the results obtained by the census. For Tanjore, South Arcot and Chingleput a special tabulation was made to ascertain the extent to which land was held by the Paraiyans and Pallans. It was found that in all three districts these castes had made considerable progress on the upward way, and if this is possible in such strongholds of the old mirási exclusiveness as Tanjore and Chingleput, it is certainly possible in Coimbatore. In the case of the Pallis the advance must be greater still, for they are a most energetic and industrious tribe, far ahead of the Paraiyans and Pallans in every respect.

Wages.

Agricultural labourers are usually paid in grain. In the case of the permanent farm servants, who are maintained all the year round by the large landholders, the usual practice is for the employer to provide food, which costs from Rs. 15 to Rs. 30 per annum. At the end of the year each servant receives a present in money varying from 1 to 3 rupees, and his master also gives him his sandals, clothes and an occasional blanket.

The second class of agricultural labourers consists of those engaged by the month for the cultivation season only. These are called padiáls and like the first class are paid in grain, the amount being from 32 to 40 Madras measures for a man and from 24 to 30 for a boy. The grain given is either cumbu, ragi, cholum, or sámai. On large farms there is usually a head padiál, who receives slightly higher wages and a present of cloths or money—about Rs. 2—at the end of the term. In addition to his wages a padiál receives a basket of grain (about 14 Madras measures) at the harvest and a portion of other crops, the total value of this perquisite being about Rs. 2 or Rs. $2\frac{1}{2}$. His wife too, if employed by the same master, gets slightly higher wages than other women.

Additional labourers are employed at the harvest and other especially busy seasons and obtain higher wages than the padiáls, the rates varying a good deal with the time of year and the demand.

Wages.

Women find labour for many months in the year on wet lands, from the collection of green manure to the work of harvest. There is less to be done by them in gardens, and still less on dry lands except at harvest, especially that of cotton, the cost of picking which is estimated at from one-twelfth to one-eighth of the value of the crop.

Since the famine there has been a decided increase in the money price of labour; the labourer class was largely affected by the famine, and there is consequently competition for their labour in towns especially, insomuch that labourers are often hard to get; Wudders have even struck work on being refused the rate of a rupee for 12 cubic yards of easy earthwork, 20 being a normal rate. From 2 to 2½ annas per day for ordinary unskilled male labourers and 1¼ to 1½ for females is about the average; hence a man and his wife can earn at least 3¼ annas per day, or the equivalent of 12 to 15 lbs. of dry grain in husk or 8 to 10 without husk. When paid in grain this would also be about the rate. In well digging by ryots it is usual to pay the labourers chiefly in grain with an occasional sheep for the Wudders; money is seldom paid by the regular ryot.

Town wages, especially those of skilled labour, are high; considering the amount of work done they are higher than in England, and irrespective of the quantity of work, the food purchasing power of skilled labour wages in town is quite equal to that of similar wages in England, where money is five or six times as cheap, and the artisan's wants much more numerous owing to the cold and wet climate and other demands. Ordinary carpenters get 8 annas per day, which will buy about 20 or 22 lbs. of dry grain free of all husk (30 to 33 with husk). As his sons usually work with him, and his work is plentiful, and the caste small, he is by no means badly off. It is owing to the high prices of labour in towns that the drinking shops there are so numerous and profitable, especially in Coimbatore town.

Formerly village artisans received grain allowances at harvest from the ryots, and in return made and repaired the agricultural implements and domestic utensils; but this practice is now on the decline.

Domestic labour is much more highly paid than in former years; native officials frequently complain of the great expenses involved by the more than doubled wages demanded by their servants.

There are no data for a complete comparison of present with former rates of wages, but from isolated statements it may be

CH. XVIII. INDUSTRIES.

gathered that money wages have kept pace with prices and that grain wages are about the same as of old.[11]

In addition to the various kinds of agricultural labour and the specific caste occupations, there are a number of modes of earning money. The ordinary ryot hires out his cart and bullocks, either driving it himself or paying his man; the collection of ávaram bark for the tanners gives the Chuckler females a good deal of work, while that of green shrubs for wet fields employs in the ploughing season thousands of men and women, carts and boats. Grass and firewood for towns are a good source of profit; roads, the channels and various public works of Government, Local Boards, Municipalities and Railways, give a good deal of employment, averaging several lakhs of rupees per annum; hundreds of coolies go to the Nílgiri coffee and tea estates for the season; cotton cleaning and pressing and coffee curing employ in the season a good number; tanning employs a good number; internal traffic is considerable, and railway traffic has developed a variety of petty trades, including especially those of cookshops (club-houses so called), and cart driving.

It is doubtful whether Coimbatore can ever be a district of great industries other than agricultural, or, in other words, whether any large section of its population can ever obtain an employment unaffected by climatic conditions. Its geological formations are necessarily almost destitute of mineral wealth, and coal is impossible. A good deal of water-power is available, especially near the hills and at the great anicuts over the rivers; good fuel can also be cheaply grown. Certain industries are practicable, but capital is so slowly attracted that long ere any appreciable effect can be produced the labouring classes will have reproduced to redundancy; and unless, as is probable, subject to terrible positive checks, will be little affected for good, since slow industrial growth merely means opportunity to reproduce a little further or more rapidly.

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[11] An interesting account of the present practice as regards wages will be found in the Collector's Settlement Report for fasli 1302. He found that the old custom of paying farm servants in grain still prevailed, and that the rates remained practically stationary. For special crops, such as chillies, tobacco, &c., money wages are usually paid, and this is also the practice as regards casual labour. Money wages show a tendency to rise in proportion to the rise in prices. Money wages seem, however, to vary a good deal in different parts of the district. In Coimbatore, Bhaváni and Kollégál, a labourer is said to get 4 annas a day, but elsewhere, as also in parts of the Coimbatore taluk, the money wages are said to be only 2 annas a day. The latter seems a very low rate, but no satisfactory conclusion as to the wages actually received can be arrived at without a special detailed wage-census, somewhat similar to that which has been instituted by the Board of Trade in England. Vague, general inquiries by a number of different officers are of very little value.—ED.

INDUSTRIES.

But since other social and political benefits would arise from such industries, their establishment is much to be desired. Their nature has been indicated in chapter VIII; such are the manufacture of sugar, tobacco, cotton, pottery and common glass, paper or paper stuff, leather, oil, soap, and the chemicals necessary in the above industries; shops for the production and repair of agricultural and other implements, and so forth. But the technical knowledge and industrial enterprise necessary for new industrial departures appear at present to be wholly wanting in Coimbatore, while the hereditary or customary disability begotten by the caste system wholly debars the non-artisan labourer from those remunerative domestic industries which employ the leisure days and add to the comfort of the peasants of Germany, Norway, and Switzerland.

THE ECONOMIC POSITION.

Apart [12] from agricultural and specific caste occupations, which are chiefly of the most ordinary and petty kind, it will have been seen above that for the rural population there are no industries of importance, and practically none except public works that can be depended on to give good work and wages either regularly in ordinary seasons or at all during a famine. Most of the occupations in the district are either agricultural or dependent on the agriculturists. Hence in a drought which stops agriculture on dry land (that is, apart from wet and well lands, 86 per cent. of the cultivated area), the whole rural labouring population is thrown back upon its savings, upon its employers, or upon the State. Its savings are *nil*, neither wages nor habits permitting of accumulation; its employers are in most cases ryots who, in a grievous scarcity, will, unless they have garden or wet lands, have difficulty in supporting themselves, and cannot, except in moderate scarcities, give their labourers aid; hence upon any general and serious failure a large percentage of the labouring population is liable to come on the State or starve.

It must be clearly understood that, in the great famine of 1877, it was not the ryots proper that suffered intensely as a class; most ryots either have a well or a share in one, or are relatives of well owners, or get wells on rent or lease from wealthy ryots, and these lived and even prospered, as did the wet land ryots, by reason of the high prices: it was only those who had nothing but dry land, or lived by daily labour on dry land, that suffered. Mr. Wedderburn, who was Collector during the famine, expressly

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[12] The following remarks apply chiefly to the existing substrata of society, the labourers and pauper ryots with the persons who depend on them; they also apply less directly to all classes, especially to those which tend to descend to the lower strata. The word 'lower' seems to be a necessary word, at least in matters of status, wealth, habits and present capacities.

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states that the ryot class was but slightly represented amongst those receiving relief. The extreme number of all classes under relief in any one month during the famine was 204,395, and this was only reached for one month (September), the average of the two months preceding and subsequent to that month being 105,195 and 80,506 respectively. No statistics are now available for the occupations and castes of the relieved and the dates on which they came on relief, but from the evidence given by the various officers it is clear that the mendicants, agricultural labourers, village artisans, petty ryots and petty shop-keepers were the earliest to come on relief in about the order named. From the only camp return available, and that only for one week, it appears that a good number of Kammálans (artisans) resorted to the then system of open relief-houses; this is not improbable as residence in the camp was not then enforced; scrupulous attention was, as at all times, paid to caste prejudices, and there are always a large number of the poorer artisans in the position of journeymen whose families would readily resort to this kind of relief. As a fact, however, this caste has not suffered.

It is, then, the labouring classes, petty ryot-labourers as distinguished from the ryot class generally, and petty traders—in other words the lowest strata of society—that are the great sufferers by famine, and are the chief objects of relief in such seasons. For economical and administrative reasons it is well to see this clearly; it is the fashion to mourn over the ryot *en masse* as poverty stricken, while it is the lowest strata of ryots and the labourers, and not the bulk of the ryots, that chiefly require to be considered in this respect, and it may fairly be asked whether in England, supposing the other advantages in communications, wealth, and the results of organized private and public charity, including the workhouses, which habitually maintain even in ordinary years a huge mass of the lowest strata of society, were removed, the rural population of England would not have felt the complete failures of two successive seasons at least as widely as the present population of Coimbatore.* There was, of course, much suffering and privation, but of the regular ryot class few have disappeared, only a moderate percentage of lands has gone out of cultivation, and these were solely the worst uplands, generally held by the ryot-labourer. That the district is, in common with the rest of India, very poor as measured pecuniarily with England, is perfectly true, but the hereditary Coimbatore peasant proprietor as a rule is, comparatively speaking, fairly off when gauged by a tropical standard of necessaries and rural luxuries, and he can resist considerable seasonal stress. It is the surplus population, that which is not hereditarily the land-owning class, that gives most cause for

anxiety; and while agricultural progress is greatly desirable for the ryot, and general, moral and mental progress for all, it is primarily for the labouring and nondescript classes that great industrial measures are so desirable.

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Owing to the diminution of the labouring classes and poorer ryots, not one at present need starve who can or will work, but the future before many years will reproduce the recent past unless real solid industries are developed, unless the characteristics of the lower strata of the people in matters of thrift and prudence and reproduction are altered, and unless they learn to make 5 acres yield what 10 now yield or fail to yield in times of even moderate drought. Population has already passed its former maximum; the rebound in births after the famine was very remarkable, and the birth-rate is probably 40 to 50 per mille. Allowing even 30 to 35 deaths per mille, the annual increase will be at least 1 per cent. per annum. The land is certainly not getting more fertile, while the poorest lands are being broken up to raise bread for the increased population; every successive drought therefore tells more heavily, seeing that it is the worst lands that suffer most and most readily in drought. That droughts or at least deficient rainfall are the usual condition of Coimbatore has been shown already; the scantiness of the population, which did not formerly require for cultivation the 700,000 acres of poor land which have been brought under pattá within the last thirty years, prevented any notable distress in years such as 1811 and 1837 which would, with the population of 1875, have been famines, but this condition of light population has now disappeared, and the district is face to face with a population dependent and pressing hard on an unproductive soil, in a dry district characterized by a normal condition of scanty and miserable rainfall, and therefore of danger. It is but a gloomy outlook if periodical famine is the only remedy for excessive reproduction, and even a doubling of the produce of the poor uplands only pushes the problem further back. Doubling or even a large increase on garden and the better dry lands is impossible as the yield is already high, and it is doubtful if the area irrigated by each well can be enlarged, while a good deal of capital is required for new wells, for which good sites are now comparatively infrequent. On poor uplands such doubling or even serious improvement is improbable, as may be judged by the fact that in spite of a great increase in the capital value of land, the pressure of a heavy population before 1876 did *not* bring about an improvement in the cultivation of poor lands, or increased and determined efforts to make an acre of such land produce 8 bushels instead of 4; the mental constitution and capacity, especially of the poorer classes, are such that mere pressure

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is insufficient except in individual cases; they will be content to live from hand to mouth by a wretched catch-crop mode of cultivation, and to die like sheep upon the occasion of serious seasonal failure, while the lands themselves are so poor and thin that a good deal of capital is required to fit them for good cultivation, and after all the crops might not repay the outlay. Poverty, ignorance, apathy, improvidence, fatalism, tropical reproduction amongst men, and poverty of soil and deficient rainfall in nature, are the causes that bar progress and produce famines. Nevertheless, individual cases prove that even in seriously bad seasons even a poor field can by proper treatment be made to yield a decent outturn when neighbouring fields produce nothing; such cases being exceptional, prove the general rule, but admit hope. But high cultivation demands much more than mere knowledge; every ryot knows how to get a good crop, but the poor owners or tenants of the vast area of poor lands have not the means or personal qualities necessary to get such crops. When, therefore, no such doubling is probable within a moderate time, and when there is little sign or little hope of manufacturing industries of a stable character producing goods for external consumption, it is difficult to see any other outlook than famine, especially under improved sanitary and medical conditions which keep alive thousands even of weakly persons who would otherwise die. Moreover, agricultural improvement is but one factor in progress, which depends rather on advance in education, on moral and mental characteristics, on accumulations, and to no small extent on mineral wealth, which does not exist in this district. Agricultural thrift among the Vellálas exists in a fair degree as shown by the great number of wells recently dug and the gardens that flourish under them, but this will not protect the lower classes who depend on the better classes. In parts of Germany and Belgium the peasant proprietors with individually but fewer acres than the Coimbatore ryot are yet seldom without their bags of silver, but it will be usually found that the progress of other industries supports them by giving labour to members of the family and by creating a demand for their produce which enables them to accumulate a store against the evil day. This is not possible to the Coimbatore ryot, still less to the labourer. For all its appearance by census statistics,[13] which give it the first

[13] This was written with reference to the census of 1881, but the high relative position of Coimbatore as an industrial district, which was shown by that census, was again brought out by the statistics of the census of 1891 and may be accepted with confidence. It is true the bulk of the industries are petty and dependent upon local demand, but there are some which are not of this character. Perhaps the most important are the tanneries and the cotton presses and mills.—ED.

place for industries other than agriculture, it is really an agricultural district and nothing else; its industries are petty rural industries dependent on the welfare of the ryots among whom the artisans live and whom they supply, and no amount of petty weavers of cheap cloths for district use, petty potters, village artisans, and so forth will avail to protect a district against distress; the ryots are the only capitalists, and they are nearly all very small, so that in times of scarcity it is all they can do to keep alive, and they cannot employ others; the wealth of the district circulates chiefly within itself and consists principally of the produce of its soils; little capital comes in *ab extra* to employ its labour, and there are but few industries to supply an external demand, so that if a local scarcity comes, the capital that employed the labourers itself fails and with it the bread of masses.

The reproductive habits of the population must be seriously considered. The industrial arts are backward or stationary and the effective desire of accumulation is low; hence a very slow increase of reproductive capital. But the reproductive power of the people is absolutely unchecked, marriages are fairly early, and children are born with no check save that of long maintained lactation. The fertility of the population may be gauged by the high birth-rate above mentioned, and there being no preventive check, it is *à priori* probable that there would be some positive check. Up to the beginning of the century this was supplied, *teste* history, by internal wars, the fearful incursions of semi-barbarous hordes, frequent pestilences [14] and dire famines; the letters of the Madura Jesuit Mission and the pages of Wilks bear witness to all the horrors here noted. The result was that Coimbatore had in 1806 a population not much exceeding half a million, or, allowing amply for all errors of enumeration, something less than three-fourths of a million. With the advent of settled British power all the losses consequent on war and invasion, whether direct in slaughter or indirect in starvation by loss of crops, diminished reproduction and so forth, at once ceased, and the people, freed from external troubles and having ample lands, multiplied exceedingly. With the horrors of war and a good deal of pestilent jungle disappeared many of the deaths by disease, and at least for many years every effort has been made to keep

[14] In the seventeenth century a dire pestilence is mentioned by the Jesuit missionaries which swept away one-third of the people, while famines of an appalling character are elsewhere recorded, in addition to the incursions of foreigners and intestine war, robbery and murder, and the depredations of wild beasts or wilder Koravans and Brinjáris. One Catholic missionary (seventeenth century) mentioned that within six months 30 persons *whom he knew* were killed by wild beasts.

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alive the population. The net result was that in 1876 there were about 1,825,000 persons in this district to be maintained on an available capital which, for the reasons given above and because of extreme original poverty, had progressed but slowly. Now, it is axiomatic that when the relative limit [15] of population is nearly reached, population, if not kept down by prudence, will be kept down by disease or starvation. That the relative limit is at present nearly reached for Coimbatore when its population passes 1,650,000 will be shown below; it has already been shown that there is practically little prudential check as gauged by births, and, emigration excepted, the only possible consequence is the positive check of disease or starvation. Disease is being daily more successfully combated, while the peaceful conditions of existence are such that even the infirm and weakly are now reared; the only probable result therefore is that widespread starvation which is called famine. Under tropical conditions, so little suffices to keep persons alive [16] that deaths by starvation are rare even in bad years, though there may be a very low vitality amongst thousands, but the moment that a wholesale seasonal catastrophe occurs, deaths are necessarily also wholesale. England is continually in a state of, technically speaking, famine, and but for its wealth, its charity, and its workhouses, thousands of paupers would annually starve; it is not therefore wonderful that with little wealth, and no public charities, wholesale seasonal failure should mean wholesale deaths. Emigration to any appreciable extent seems improbable; the census returns for Coimbatore show that only a few persons born in Coimbatore live in other districts, and these are counterbalanced by immigrants.[17] In 1882–83 only 391 persons emigrated; no one left who had the least chance of living in the district; it is however reported that in 1884 about 130

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[15] By 'relative limit' is to be understood the limit beyond which under existing circumstances, *e.g.*, of capital, land, industrial knowledge, &c., population cannot proceed without check.

[16] Every district officer knows many male and female poor, whose food is a little dry grain with wild fruits such as prickly-pear and occasionally a little meat or fish; a rag is their clothing and a hovel their shelter; money is almost unknown to them, and a rupee is wealth dreamt of, but hardly to be realized. At the same time neither these people nor others fail to increase the population without stint, and the increase in their numbers is in no way restrained by prudential considerations.

[17] For statistics of emigration and immigration see chapter i. The net result is that there is emigration of a temporary character to the coffee and tea estates of the Nílgiris and Malabar and probably of Mysore also. The number of such immigrants is not large as judged by the census of 1891, but it must be remembered that the coffee season of that year was very early and many of the coolies had returned home by the date of the census.—ED.

ryots left Dhárápuram to settle on lands irrigated by the Tungabhadra; details are unknown. Little dependence can be placed on emigration as a relief of population. This problem of population has to be faced, especially in Coimbatore with its wide stretches of infertile, arid soil, scarcity of rainfall, and frequent seasonal failures. The subject cannot here be fitly discussed, but Mill's axiom is at least deserving of consideration, that society (State or Government) "cannot with (financial) impunity take the feeding upon itself and leave the multiplying free."

Further, while the habit of reproduction is such that in ordinary years, and still more in prosperous times, as in the decades before and after the famine, population progresses at a very rapid rate, production on the other hand does not keep pace with population, and this for two reasons, (1) that there is little more available land which in the present state of agriculture, prices, and wealth is worth cultivation for profit, *i.e.*, that will on an average of years yield any surplus above the expenses, and not very much that will yield a bare subsistence to the cultivator without capital; (2) that the agricultural art is stationary as regards the mass of the poor lands, the only existing improvement being in digging wells and in turning a few dry acres into wet.

On the first point reference may be made to chapter IX, where it was shown that the average extent of cultivated land per head is an acre and-a-half and that the area of culturable land available for the extension of cultivation is rather less than 350,000 acres. Nearly the whole of this land, however, is very poor, either intrinsically or from position and even if cultivated continuously would give but a scanty yield. But it would be impossible to cultivate much of it continuously, as, owing to the poverty of the soil and the defective agricultural practice, it is necessary to leave such inferior lands fallow once in three years. It is clear, therefore, that there is very little margin left for the increase of population under existing conditions.

As to the second method in which the relative limit might be pushed back, viz., the development of the agricultural art, it does not appear that there is any present hope of such a development as would enable the limit to be put back for any appreciable period; neither education nor wealth, nor mental and social habits appear to admit of it. The effective desire of accumulation is low, and hence the increase of reproductive capital and its use in agriculture is but small. This matter has been discussed above and in the chapter on Agriculture in volume I; progress appears to be extremely slow, and at present hardly perceptible; peasant proprietors are everywhere conservative, especially when ignorant

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and hereditarily confined to the custom of their fathers as in South India; and while the use of human excreta is wholly abhorrent to their ideas, so that this immense and sufficient stock of manure is wasted, the climate, soil, and state of capital prevent the accumulation of stocks of manure to supply this waste. In none but a wealthy or new country can this go on, while in ancient countries, such as Flanders and Japan, where human excreta are carefully saved and used, agriculture is in a forward condition in spite of drawbacks. As stated above, it is probable that, the use of human excreta being rejected, much of the poorest land would require a considerable outlay on which the return would not, or would hardly, repay the interest, while a trifling outlay would be useless.

The only direction in which there has been evident development is in the extended use of water, the most obvious of all improvements and that which has the soonest reached limit. This can only be obtained by individuals (1) by turning dry land into wet, (2) by digging wells. The former is only occasionally possible and by great labour and expense in lowering the level of high lands bordering channels; the latter has been availed of to a considerable extent. During the past thirty years about 26,000 new wells have been dug, representing a capital of say 65 to 70 lakhs.[18] Nevertheless there has been no advance in rural practice; there is no want of knowledge of the agricultural art, but there has been no advance in the power of adapting practice to modern requirements and circumstances. Even the pressure of population upon area has not suggested modifications of practice, or the necessity of a different method—not in details of actual cropping, but in the system of utilising the land; there is no greater protection against the effects of season, but rather the reverse, as worse lands tilled by the poorest possible ryots are now largely taken up. Nor does it seem that any advance is likely unless with very slow steps; real, common-sense, practical education has made little advance, especially among the productive rural classes; wealth has not been used or accumulated; the knowledge of agricultural science is unsought, or, if sought, unattainable. The Coimbatore ryot is not further advanced than his ancestor of fifty years ago either in capacity or knowledge, and this in spite of railways and a generally advanced administration; his customs and rural economy are the same now as then, though he is face to face with

[18] Since the above was written the digging of wells has been greatly stimulated by the readiness with which the Government has granted loans for the purpose. The total amount so advanced since 1887 is nearly 14 lakhs of rupees. —ED.

wholly different conditions in the advance of population and the margin left for cultivation. An agricultural and rural system that sufficed then is insufficient now. That progress is possible cannot be doubted; in seasons of serious drought, such as in the north-east monsoon of 1881, there were a few acres of decent crop on land absolutely similar and contiguous to that producing almost *nil* crops, and in one case (that of a Pariah's land) the cholum was almost equal to that of garden; this was simply due to manure [19] and the careful cultivation of small areas. Highly cultivated homestead farms and the use of the natural manural agent would change the face of the district, chiefly by the comparative certainty with which good crops could be produced in almost all years (see 'Agriculture').

But though private effort in matters of irrigation has an early reached limit,[20] it does appear (see chapter X) that there are district public projects, such as that of Colonel Montgomery, which would largely tend to secure a great section of the district, if not for ever, yet for a very long period, from any chance of famine, and would at the same time supply cheaply vast stores of food for use in famine times, while the increased demand for labour and the increased food for cattle would both push back the approaching danger to the labouring population and enable better tillage even on lands not actually irrigated, while the increase of wealth and valuable products would go far to develop the district. In this direction at least there appears to be hope even for the immediate future, if the works are soon carried out. It is to be concluded that, unless by great irrigation schemes, or by the development of wells, or by sudden and great rural improvements, production in Coimbatore can never keep pace with human reproduction; that all these are possible, but while the first two are probable, the third, as regards the poor ryots who chiefly hold the land, is improbable.

But with increasing and redundant population and almost stationary production must come a lowering of the social standard of comfort and living; while a great body of ryots remain stationary, the lowest strata [21] must be gradually sinking in comfort with every

[19] The use and value of manure are of course well known; it is in the adaptation of available manure other than that of cattle, the concentration of cultivation by ryots living on small farms, and the devotion of more capital to given areas, that change of system seems called for.

[20] The great advance since this was written shows that the limit is not reached quite so soon as is here implied.—ED.

[21] That is, the lowest strata of the ryot class. The labouring class has not suffered: on the contrary its standard of comfort has decidedly risen. The class whose condition has been and is being adversely affected is that of the high caste petty landholder who is forbidden by custom to work with his hands.—ED.

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addition to their ranks. And this process is accelerated by social habits; owing to the intense conservatism, aversion to removal, and inertia of the Coimbatore ryot, to the influence of the caste system which practically prevents a peasant from entering a trade or profession, to the absence of industries for surplus members to engage in, to the absolutely universal custom that every male and female of the population shall marry and marry early, and to the law of equal inheritance and division, the whole country is being parcelled out into patches cultivated by a population ever tending to redundancy, to degradation in the standards of comfort, to destitution of the means and to absence of aspirations of rising in the world. The number of petty pattás, of which the proportion is very heavy, does not completely disclose the facts, for many of these are joint pattás and have in some cases as many as 30 names in them. True that many persons hold in many more than one, but there are thousands who only hold a share in a single petty pattá, and it is these that swell the relief camps in time of famine. The number of pattás has not increased of late years; it is the immense number of persons now holding under these pattás claiming petty shares in petty holdings, and living on the scanty produce of them, that should be ascertained and considered.[22] It cannot be doubted but that this tends to social degradation; that this is really the case may be seen even in these days which have succeeded the recent 'check' of the 1877 famine.[23]

To sum up, the district having a poor soil, a tropical climate, seasons of uncertain and nearly always scanty rainfall, a population highly conservative and somewhat slow of movement, uneducated in agricultural science, habituated to unlimited reproduction and the unlimited sub-division of property, has

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[22] This continual sub-division into petty holdings must be distinguished from that reduction in cultivated area which has been suggested as a means of improving agriculture; the former merely means so many more pauper ryots rudely cultivating a larger area of exhausted, unimproved, and badly treated soil; the latter means concentration of capital, labour and attention on a smaller area, a practice which would probably tend to limit the increase of families, would certainly render the crops less precarious and would promote the homestead practice which is a sanitary and agricultural desideratum. Where the waste area is, as in Coimbatore, of very poor soil, and the rainfall so precarious, the increments of outturn successively required for an increasing population will probably be more successfully raised by development rather than by extension of cultivation.

[23] The question of the relation between pattás and farmers has been discussed in chapter ix. The average size of a holding is relatively high in Coimbatore.—ED.

apparently reached under present conditions the relative limit [24] of population, a considerable proportion of which is always on the verge of famine. Were it not for the ease with which life can be preserved in a tropical climate, there would be deaths by starvation in many years, while a seasonal calamity such as that of 1876 must in these days of redundancy mean wholesale calamity. Practical remedies are difficult to conceive, and if conceived, are slow in operation, and the most hopeful must at present expect periodical catastrophes such as those of 1877. Whether the slow march of improvement can ever protect the district against the tropical tendency to redundancy is a serious question. Meanwhile, when on an average only 4 bushels, each of 20 measures, are produced per acre of crop over tens of thousands of acres, and 5 or 6 bushels over hundreds of thousands (*vide* Mr. Clogstoun's Report, &c.), agriculturists and economists have an ample field for labour, nor need the schoolmaster and engineer complain of lack of work.

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Regarding the standard of comfort there are but few data to allow of a comparison with former years. To judge by the pages of Buchanan and scattered allusions in the reports of Collectors, the ordinary ryot now lives much more respectably than eighty years ago; houses, which in Buchanan's time seem to have been chiefly thatched huts of the conical [25] pattern still seen in hamlets and on the hills, are larger and much more comfortable and frequently well tiled and timbered; more rural luxuries are raised by aid of the numerous wells and wet lands, and more is certainly spent socially; much of the last expenditure, however, is to be deprecated as being an unremunerative expenditure of capital, rendered possible by the increased value of land.

Incidence of taxation.

The taxes paid by the inhabitants of Coimbatore amounted in 1892–93 to Rs. 2–3–2 per head, but more than one-half of this is the land-tax. The several items making up the total are—

	RS.	A.	P.		RS.	A.	P.
Land revenue ..	1	9	6	Stamps	0	2	4
Local rates ..	0	2	6	Intoxicating liquor..	0	4	5
Income tax ..	0	0	4·7	Opium and intoxicating drugs. ..	0	0	0·6
					2	3	2·3

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[24] This is not inconsistent with a considerable surplus of food and other produce in ordinary years as noted below, first and chiefly because this section, as stated above, treats chiefly of the lowest strata of society, who do not share in any surplus; secondly, because there is probably no surplus in years of seasonal failure; thirdly, because much if not most of the surplus is not in food-grains, but in mere luxuries, condiments, and inedible produce such as cotton, horsegram, &c.

[25] "The merchants and manufacturers are evidently improving in their "manner of living, are forsaking their pyramidical or conical huts, and are erect- "ing tiled houses." (Buchanan, 1800.) [In 1871 the proportion of thatched houses was 86 per cent.; in 1891 it was only 76 per cent.—ED.]

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The incidence of the land assessment per acre is shown in the following table for a series of years; it is to be specially remembered that up to 1850 money as measured in produce was twice as dear as it was till 1881. The decrease in assessment is chiefly due to the continual reductions, viz., 37 per cent., on all dry lands in the southern division in 1806, several minor reductions in wet land, and the removal of the special garden assessment in 1854 and 1864, whereby $4\frac{1}{2}$ lakhs of rupees, or about 20 per cent., were struck off the rent-roll; partly also to the immense area of poor, low-assessed land which has been taken up since 1850. What was practically a reduction of assessment was the former enjoyment of an area amounting at settlement to 7 per cent. of the occupied area free of assessment; this was the area discovered by survey to be in excess of the account entries; *e.g.*, a ryot held nominally 100 acres at nominally 1 rupee per acre, and paid Rs. 100 thereon, whereas his real occupation was 107 acres, for which he now pays Rs. 107 instead of Rs. 100, *i.e.*, 1 rupee per acre instead of 15 annas. As a set-off against the reduction, there have been the gradual abolition of cowles (grants for years on reduced assessments), which were supposed to be needed to foster cultivation, and the gradual extinction by the progress of cultivation of the pasture rate by which a ryot might hold one-fifth of his land at one-fourth the survey assessment:—

Year.	Wet.			Garden.		
	Occupied area in acres.	Assessment.	Average per acre.	Occupied area in acres.	Assessment.	Average per acre.
		RS.	RS. A. P.		RS.	RS. A. P.
1821 ...	56,232	4,20,617	7 7 8	139,770	5,00,039	3 9 3
1851 ...	66,482	5,00,633	7 8 6	169,925	5,56,713	3 4 6
1875 ...	89,708	6,58,340	7 5 5	...	...	...
1881 ...	85,794	6,36,434	7 6 8	...	...	...
1891 ...	87,101	6,44,117	7 6 4	...	...	...

Year.	Dry.			Price per garce.		
	Occupied area in acres.	Assessment.	Average per acre.	Second-sort rice.	Ragi.	Cumbu.
		RS.	RS. A. P.	RS.	RS.	RS.
1821 ...	1,077,057	9,74,107	0 14 6	203	90	86
1851 ...	1,173,130	10,47,810	0 14 3	194	85	83
1875 ...	2,217,327	19,72,817	0 14 2	379	176	176
1881 ...	2,167,259	20,12,984	0 14 10	332	124	116
1891 ...	2,286,326	21,18,545	0 14 10	428	251	252

The land-tax.

Garden lands, which, being usually in fertile bottoms, are generally of good quality and are therefore assessed at the higher rates, viz., from 12 annas to Rs. $1\frac{1}{2}$, have, since 1864, when the special garden assessment was reduced to dry assessment, been included among dry lands; hence the increased rate per dry acre shown against 1881. This increased rate does not appear in 1875, because in that year the area shown is, for at least some taluks, the new survey area, while the assessment is at the old rates; hence an unduly low rate per acre.

By the aid of various remissions, temporary suspensions of individual demand for two or three years (*vide* Jamabandi Report, fasli 1265), and by striking out of the demand items such as the usually heavy ones of amounts due by "paupers, deceased or deserted ryots" (*vide* Collector's letter, No. 137, dated 4th July 1873) the assessment up to 1850 was paid and paid punctually, *i.e.*, within the fasli, to the end of which the instalments then ran; there was, however, in many years a great falling off in area, which showed that many lands of the poorer sort were abandoned, and as the area then in occupation was comparatively small, this relinquishment meant that a living could only be made out of the better lands at then prices. This is not wonderful when prices are compared with assessments, remembering specially that a bad year meant distress for want of sufficient crops to feed the ryot and his labourers and pay the demand, and that from the absence of communications there could be little import of cheaper grain, while a good year meant also distress, since there were no roads and railways to take off the surplus, so that the markets were glutted and prices were abnormally low. But, as a rule, the assessment was paid punctually when its incidence, after deducting all remissions, was, as in 1854, Rs. 1–6–2 per occupied acre, and prices half of the present prices, as against Rs. 1–1–10 without deducting remissions in 1882–83, and further, a good deal of profit was made, especially upon garden lands in spite of their assessment of Rs. $3\frac{1}{2}$ or 4 per acre, for wells were frequently dug, so that instead of 22,000 wells as in 1800 there were 34,511 in 1854; most garden lands were saleable in 1839, which however was not the case with other lands. *A fortiori* therefore there must be considerable profit in 1881, when the assessment averaged much less in actual money than it did up to 1854, while money had decreased in value by one-half. This remark applies to the land in cultivation before 1855; the lands subsequently taken up have been of the worst kind, and their low assessment has tended to decrease the total average; that these are saleable is not yet proved, and even if saleable they are so in a much lower proportion than other lands.

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But on the whole the assessment, including the charge for water on wet lands, may be calculated at not more than one-tenth of the gross outturn and not one-fifth of the net, except in the low classes of land, assessed at 12 annas and under. Assuming that so little as $1\frac{1}{4}$ lbs. of grain in husk is required as food per head,[26] a population of 1,650,000 requires about 336,000 tons of food-grain per annum; of this, 91,682 acres of paddy at 1 ton[27] each account for 91,682 tons, value, at Rs. 40 per ton, $36\frac{2}{3}$ lakhs. The balance, valued at Rs. 35 per ton, is worth $85\frac{1}{3}$ lakhs; total value, of food-grains only, 121 lakhs. To this must be added the value of products such as sugarcane, plantains, betel, cocoanuts, turmeric, tobacco, chillies, and other condiments, oil-seeds, horse-gram, and cotton, which in fasli 1292 were grown on 521,824 acres, and produced crops worth at least 55 lakhs. Adding 10 lakhs for seed and wastage, and 14 for export of raw produce other than gram and cotton, in all 24 lakhs, the value of grain and produce as above is 200 lakhs. The surplus of 24 lakhs is estimated as low as possible, and is probably below the mark, nor has any allowance been made for grain storage—though this is certainly considerable, seeing that large stocks of seed-grain were in hand even at the end of the famine, and that the practice was once universal in this and neighbouring districts—nor for hides, manure and vegetables, nor for grain given to cattle and rams, nor has the value of straw been considered, nor of the pasture on fallow lands, although the full assessment on all occupied lands has been included in the total assessment; these items, including 10,000 tons of cotton seed and a large amount of oil-cake, are certainly worth 30 lakhs, while the dairy produce of 250,000 cows, and the meat of about 200,000 sheep and goats annually killed, must be worth at least 12 lakhs. Moreover, from the gross assessment of $26\frac{1}{2}$ lakhs, about 3 lakhs

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[26] Dr. Cornish assumes $1\frac{1}{4}$ lbs., and he is unlikely to be far wrong; it is not clear whether he means grain in husk or grain without husk; if the latter, the figures in the text must be raised by about $\frac{1}{4}$ for dry grains and $\frac{1}{2}$ for rice. One-and-a-quarter lbs. of dry grain in husk is probably a low average, since it cleans into 14 or 15 oz. of eatable grain. [Dr. Cornish must have meant husked grain. The ration of an adult male convict on hard labour is 24 oz. of husked grain, and meat or salt-fish is added to this three times a week. For a population however, like that of Coimbatore, with a relatively low proportion of adults, $1\frac{1}{4}$ lbs. of grain is a high all-round average.—ED.]

[27] One ton = 900 Madras measures at $2\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. each, is a fair average; most of the above lands are channel fed and produce two crops, each of which will yield 800 to 1,000 measures. On the other hand a good deal of the wet land produces only one crop, or is under tanks and produces sometimes nothing, and often very little. The immense outturn is, in itself, suggestive of the vast drain upon the fertility of the soil caused by the neglect or rather rejection of human excreta, properly treated, as a principal manural agent.

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should be deducted as the price of water supplied to wet lands, which is not really an item of land assessment, but is interest on Government outlay. Probably one-eleventh nearly represents the incidence of the true land assessment upon the total outturn of all kinds of agricultural produce. In 1828 Mr. J. Sullivan stated that the ryots returned the assessment as one-fourth of the gross produce; this was possibly overstated, but in any case the great modern reduction is due (1) to the great increase of prolific gardens and reduction of garden assessments, (2) to the relative fall in money. Gardens now pay only from As. 12 to Rs. 2 per acre, while they produce not less than 1,400 lbs. per crop per acre cultivated with grain, and much of this area bears two crops per annum. Much of this produce is, however, due to the capital of the ryot sunk in expensive wells and apparatus, abundant manure and continuous labour, and must therefore be credited to him only. The large produce on this and on the wet lands and on the better class of dry lands, shows how little (say 200 lbs. or 4 bushels) must be the average yield on the lower class of dry lands, since it is not probable that the *average* gross produce of the district is very much above the foregoing amounts. No good account has been obtained of imports and exports of food-grain; the latter probably overbalance the former, as merchants from Bangalore, the west coast and elsewhere resort largely to the wet villages for buying up paddy, and to other villages for other grains. Rice is not much consumed in the district by the ryots and labouring classes, so that it is an article of considerable export, and only the finer kinds are imported. Dry grains are ordinarily not imported. Hence in ordinary years the district produce more than suffices to feed the population. The land assessment in itself has nothing to do with poverty amongst the people; [28] the large practical

[28] It has been supposed that the admitted increase of coercive process is the result of increased revenue pressure and increased poverty. The history of the Coimbatore district disproves this and shows the true reasons. Coercive process does not appear to any appreciable extent till 1865, and for years previously there were absolutely no sales of property for arrears; since that date it rapidly increased. Among the various causes which begot this increase is the greater publicity by means of newspapers, the Post Office, and so forth, which effectually stifled illegal or irregular forms of process, while Act II of 1864 enforced legal but cumbrous remedies; the cautious procedure of the Act led to an increase in process so soon as the ryots discovered the delay that must take place; and this delay is a constant difficulty, especially since the ryots' money is worth 12 per cent., while Government charges only 6 per cent. Another cause for the increase is absenteeism, largely due to the great increment in profits subsequent to 1860, especially on the richer lands; these are frequently held by outsiders and non-cultivators, who are not only well aware of the slow action of the law, but are not resident in the village. Another cause is unpunctuality and dishonesty on the

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decrease of money assessment produced by the rapid and vast increase in the price of produce has been very sudden, while there has also been a large actual decrease since 1854 and 1864 in the removal of the garden assessment; nevertheless, no commensurate

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part of many village officers, and a further one is the great increase of work to the higher officials, who can no longer give their undivided attention to the revenue, as in the first half of the century, or even up to 1861 and 1871, when progress, the Penal Code, Local Funds, and other Acts brought great increments of work. Another chief cause of increased process is the increase of labourer-ryots; a villager, however poor, can get land for the asking, but the only land available is the wretched upland, which can only be cultivated for a profit above that of bare subsistence in fairly good years; hence as soon as the pauper cultivator has got in his scanty crop, he permits the land to be attached and bought in by Government for the arrears of assessment, which of course he does not pay, and as the land has no sale value and the ryot himself is a pauper, the matter ends in large nominal arrears, to be eventually written off. Seeing that lands in the margin of cultivation can pay no rent, it is a necessary consequence that when the State landlord attempts to enforce the levy of its demand, which practically amounts to a share of the cultivator's subsistence, payment is evaded, coercive process resorted to, and the land abandoned. Good lands seldom or never come to actual auction unless there is some trickery, as is not infrequent. One more cause of increased revenue processes, as well as of non-progress in the culture of dry lands, will be explained by the statistics of holdings. In 1854 and 1864, 4½ lakhs of rupees were struck off the rent-roll by the abolition of garden assessment: instead of applying this immense saving to the development of existing holdings, the ryots in most instances rushed for more land, which was all of the poorer sorts, thus perpetuating their money obligations while relatively diminishing their power of meeting them owing to the low productive power of the newly taken up land. Hence, as stated, it is not the pressure of the assessment that has caused poverty, but that circumstances have brought to the front a poverty which always existed, but not previously in direct relations with Government. It is not surprising that nominal coercive process should be widespread, since the poorest lands can pay no rent, and must therefore be frequently unable to pay a considerable tax; it is clear that since it was practically non-existent before 1860, coercive process was not then caused by pressure of the assessment; *à fortiori* such pressure is not the cause upon lands then in occupation, now that, acre for acre, assessments are considerably lower, while prices are far higher. It is the vast stretches of very poor land that are the cause of coercive process, except in such cases as are covered by the first two reasons.

Figures subsequent to the famine are largely nominal, since most of the sales were nominal and solely due to the death or desertion of the pattádárs. Such sales were necessitated by the rule that pattás cannot be cancelled except upon formal relinquishment by the pattádár, or upon revenue sale or Civil Court certificate.

[The total number of coercive processes issued in the three faslis 1300–1302 was, on an average, 444,520. Of these only 2,804 were notices of distraint, while notices of sale numbered 1,700. Property was attached in only 2,793 cases, and only in 150 of these was the property actually sold, the amount involved being Rs. 1,386. If, therefore, we omit the first notices, which are little more than reminders that the revenue is due, the amount of coercive process is extremely small. Nor can there be any difficulty in collection when, out of 200,000 cases property had to be sold for default in only 150.—ED.]

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benefit[29] has followed; the effect of this, and of the great reductions on gardens amounting to almost 20 per cent. of the total land revenue, was merely to induce a sudden and undue extension of dry holdings beyond what the ryots could profitably and properly cultivate. Moreover, a great many ryots have been enabled to raise large sums on the mortgage of their lands and spend them in show; others live idly by leasing out their lands to labourers on a rack rent; neither property nor progress has advanced in the same degree with opportunity. The sudden influx of wealth without labour has induced frequent extravagance, an increase obtained without labour has been discounted at pleasure, so that many important families owning considerable areas of the richest wet land, which has increased in value tenfold within thirty years, are steeped to the eyes in debt, for which they have nothing to show. The continued sub-division of properties also prevents the establishment for a series of generations of substantial landholders who can pioneer progress in agricultural and rural economy.

It is not then to any reduction of assessment, but to an improvement in the ryot himself, that progress must be looked for; the entire removal of the assessment would not yield him more than half as much profit as that presented to him by the development of trade, the progress of population, and the consequent doubling of prices which ensued between 1855 and 1875; if then he was flourishing (*teste* Mr. E. B. Thomas) in 1855, he should be prosperous now. This at least holds good for the payment of the assessment,[30] which is actually lower per acre than in 1854, and for the purchase of all foreign goods, such as cloths, iron, &c., which are unaffected by local prices, and have even fallen in money value, and for salt, while it is incontrovertible that within the last thirty years the increased profits of cultivation, combined with more abundant capital, have raised rents and the prices of land to a very great extent beyond those of the first half

[29] Agricultural wages are chiefly paid in kind, and not in money, and have practically remained the same from time immemorial; hence the actual expenses of cultivation have but slightly increased with the price of produce, abundant labour having been in competition, at least before the famine, and new industries being but scantily opened, wages remained stationary. Hence most of the increment of profits due to the rise of prices came to the ryot. Moreover, since the ryot ordinarily produces the chief items of his needs, and pays for little *ab extra* except for cloths, his domestic money expenditure has not increased *pari passu* with his receipts, and it may therefore be stated that the rise in grain and land prices has greatly benefited him. The immense rise in the prices of land itself shows the rise in profits.

[30] It must be remembered that the rise in prices was not due to a universal and absolute fall in the price of silver, such as took place subsequent to 1875; the fall in money was only relative and was due to the rise in actual value of district produce.

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of the century. The results of the famine do not negative the fact of general prosperity, for, as shown above, the famine chiefly affected the labourers, while the country does not exist where an almost total failure of two seasons following on a previous bad year would not, but for State aid and private charity, ruin, if not destroy, the lower strata of a class wholly living by daily labour upon very poor land.

Progress of the district under the ryotwar system.

The more general question of the progress of the district under the ryotwar system is an interesting one. The system is that each farmer holds direct of Government, without any middleman; he holds indefeasibly and in perpetuity, subject only to the payment of the assessment, and can contract his farm at pleasure or enlarge it, if land be available, though Government cannot force him to do the one or the other. This has been the system for seventy years with a few restrictions in the first half of the century, which, however, were easily evaded, while the removal in 1854 and 1864 of the impolitic garden assessment, which was really a tax on the profits of the ryot's capital, left him with few, if any, grievances. Even these restrictions were counterbalanced by remissions, by permanent and temporary cowles, by reductions of assessment, such as the pasture assessment, and by his holding an unpaid-for excess of 7 per cent. All these anomalies have now been swept away. The remarks in the foregoing pages regarding population, prices, assessment, and rentals largely answer the question as to material progress; briefly it may be noted; (1) that whereas up to 1850, or at least in 1839, only about one-eighth of the dry lands, three-fourths of the gardens, and one-fourth of the wet lands were saleable, in 1884 the bulk of the dry lands had a price ranging from As. 4 to Rs. 50 per acre; all gardens were saleable, and were worth from Rs. 50 to above Rs. 100 per acre, inclusive of the well, while wet lands were also wholly saleable at an average of from Rs. 250 to Rs. 300; (2) that a very large proportion of the lands bears a rental of one-half of the gross produce, whereas in 1839 a smaller proportion bore a rental of only one-half the net produce, *i.e.*, after deducting cultivation expenses; (3) that interest has decreased, mortgages on landed property being now freely accepted at 9 per cent., whereas in 1839 interest on such transactions was from 12 to 18 per cent. and higher; (4) that trading capital now turns to land as an investment, and is willing to accept from it a return of 6 per cent., whereas in 1839 it was declared that trading capital did not invest in land; (5) that wells have increased from about 22,000 to about 65,000 in actual use, representing capital permanently sunk since 1800 of at least 100 lakhs, besides that sunk in wells not now in use, and a floating capital of about 40 lakhs employed in annual expensive cultivation; (6)

that thousands of acres have been turned from dry land into wet; (7) that the cultivation of very valuable products such as sugar-cane, turmeric, cocoanuts, plantains, &c., has largely increased; (8) that in the unprecedented famine of 1877–78 it was not the ryot class who suffered severely, save only those who depended solely on dry land.

Effect of railways, &c.

The economical results of the administration generally are similar to those for the presidency. Special note must be made of the economical effect of local roads, railways, and the land revenue system. From various reports it is known that in 1800 there were practically no roads, but merely tracks; there was not a cart in the district, and what traffic existed was carried on by pack-bullocks and ponies, and by basket boats on the Cauvery. The result was, not only that all imported commodities were dear, but export trade was insignificant, and only in valuable articles, such as ghee, spices, and so forth. Grain could not be moved, so that prices depended on local scarcity or abundance, with the result that substantial ryots were no worse off in bad years than in good, for storage was a necessity, so that deficient crops were supplemented from the surplus of good years, which then fetched very high prices; while in good years, especially if consecutive, the markets were glutted, prices fell heavily, and ryots who were compelled to sell in order to meet Government and other demands, were ruined by their own superabundance. This reproach remained for many years, so that the average prices beetwen 1849–53 were lower than at any previous time, while in times of famine, as in 1824 and 1837, the difference in prices between famine and non-famine districts was very serious (Board's Proceedings, No. 3429A, dated 19th December 1878). There are, however, now in the district above 2,000 miles of metalled or gravelled roads in good order, besides numerous cross roads and village lanes, and 146 miles of railway (Madras and South Indian). The result of this improvement is an immense internal traffic between the various trade centres, such as weekly markets and towns, and a considerable import and export trade in all kinds even of heavy produce and goods, in which thousands of carts [31] take part with the railways. Every village has several, and every town hundreds of carts, which are extensively built in many places. The value of the rail-borne traffic has not been ascertained; but one or two facts may be noted: (1) that in the late famine grain was poured in by thousands of tons, while the price of rice at the height of

[31] From 1st June to 30th November 1883, 16,209 laden and 14,434 empty carts, besides horses and pack-bullocks, were registered as crossing the Amarávati near Dhárápuram.

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Effect of railways, &c.

the famine differed from that in Tanjore, whence it was largely supplied, by only about 3 lbs. per rupee; (2) that private trade has been so stimulated by the railway that at the least hint of scarcity in any other district or province grain is at once moved; *e.g.*, in the early months of 1884 scarcity seemed imminent in North India, and the Coimbatore railway stations were at once crammed with grain *en route* northwards; (3) that trades such as the considerable tanning industry, coffee growing, &c., have been begotten by the railway, which carries the products cheaply to the coast; (4) that upon the making of the railway,[32] prices, to the great advantage of the ryot, speedily doubled owing to export facilities; the marginal table shows this clearly; with this great rise in grain prices, land prices also rose as elsewhere shown, so that land, especially near the railways, is now worth from six to ten times its value when the Madras railway was made; (5) that the production of valuable crops has been greatly stimulated; tobacco, which has long been largely grown owing to the west coast demand, being excepted, valuable garden produce is more largely grown. It is to be noted that railways cannot yet compete with carts for local traffic of, say, 30 miles run, owing to the necessary delay in getting trains, and to the low rates at which ryots can afford to hire out their carts in the non-cultivation season. Owing to the latter reason, and also to the train mileage and break of gauge from the northern and middle taluks to the south, a great deal of produce, especially cotton, is sent south by carts; the often-proposed railway from Palghat to Dindigul would much facilitate trade.

Period.	Pounds per rupee.			
	Clean rice.	Ragi.	Cumbu.	Cholum.
1809-13 ...	47	107	101	99
1819-23 ...	45	88	83	81
1828-32 ...	49	101	108	89
1849-53 ...	63	127	128	109
1861-65 ...	22	44	46	39
1870-74 ...	28	62	58	49

Prices of produce.

The tables in chapter IV and in the preceding paragraph show clearly the alteration in prices of produce. It can hardly be doubted but that one factor in the rise was population. Up to 1840 population was comparatively scanty and reduced by famines and outbreaks of fever, &c.; but with the establishment of a settled land system, and with a fairly good cycle of seasons subsequent to

[32] It is not to be understood that railways were the sole cause of the rise in prices; they were but one probable factor in that they enabled grains to find their level instead of being artificially kept down, and in that export of valuable products was largely rendered possible; the vast and recent increase in such products, as well as in cotton, is thus explicable.

Prices of produce.

1840 population rapidly increased, so that an abnormal rate of reproduction was found in the census of 1871, when population was 1,763,274 as against 1,153,862 *plus* errors in 1851. This rapid rise led to the cultivation of but poorly productive soils, viz., the dry uplands, distant from the village head-quarters. On these lands the returns are disproportionately costly, since seed, ploughing, weeding and harvesting are nearly as expensive as on better lands, and the assessment, though lower, has equally to be paid. Hence a necessary rise in prices; of this the whole value has gone to the ryots cultivating the better lands, since their cultivation charges are usually paid in grain; this surplus grain remains constant, but is twice as valuable, while a less quantity serves to pay the assessment. About the same time communications were largely opened up, so that surplus stocks, which in bad years kept the market down and in good years glutted the market, were rapidly removed; hence a constant upward tendency of grain, since the surplus in good years was removed, while bad years intensified prices. Hence a great increase in the price of land and increased facilities for reproduction, which in turn caused a still further resort to poorer lands and consequent further rise in prices. The tables of grain prices with that showing the areas of land under occupation will illustrate the above, and the remarkable fall in prices after the famine, when population was reduced by about 222,000 and the cultivated area by about 130,000 acres, the bulk of which was in the very poorest land, corroborate the above views; there can be no doubt that irrespective of the fall in silver, prices will, ten years hence, have attained their former height.[33]

Price of land.

The price of land has been frequently adverted to, and will now be discussed. Information has been got from the registration offices and elsewhere, but it is to be noted that registration statistics do not throw full light on the prices of land as supposed; (1) because, prior to 1877, sales of land under Rs. 100 were not compulsorily registrable and were not registered; in other words, sales of the poorer classes of land were not registered at all, since there was at that time no object in the registry of optionally registrable documents as there is now, when such documents take precedence if registered; hence before 1877 no true deductions as to the price of land *generally* can be drawn; in fact the presence of many thousands of transfers in the Revenue department shows that but a fraction of sales prior to 1877 was registered; (2) because the classes of land sold are not stated, so that it cannot be known whether the lower and poorer sorts were proportionately represented; (3) because it is certain that much of the poor land has no

[33] This anticipation has been justified: see chapter iv.—ED.

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sale value, and therefore could not possibly appear, unless with other lands, in registered sale transactions; (4) because good and bad lands are often mixed up in a transaction, and the bad land may be merely thrown in, the real price being that of the good land; (5) because an examination of the figures shows that in many cases the areas sold were so petty as to indicate that they had some special value. A very thorough examination of the registration books with local enquiry and examination can alone give true returns, and that only since 1880. It is certain from local inquiries and experience during several years, that much dry land has no sale value though frequently under cultivation; a ryot will let it be sold for trifling arrears, and at the sale there will be little or no competition; while attempts to obtain the value of arrears from new applicants for lands which have come into possession of Government by sale are usually futile. It being granted that the worst lands in cultivation can ordinarily pay no rent, it follows *à fortiori* that when the demand for assessment is enforced, involving a diminution of the cultivator's returns, there cannot in such cases be a sale value; hence such land can hardly appear in the returns except when lumped with good land. When then the average price of land in a taluk is mentioned, all that is meant is the average price of land that happens to be registered, especially if before 1877.[34]

[34] The following table is taken from the Settlement Report; this having been written only in 1875, the above remarks relating to registration before 1877 are applicable:—

—	Erode.			Satyamangalam.			Bhavâni.			Coimbatore.		
	Cases.	Area.	Average per acre.	Cases.	Area.	Average per acre.	Cases.	Area.	Average per acre.	Cases.	Area.	Average per acre.
	NO.	ACS.	RS.	NO.	ACS.	RS.	NO.	ACS.	RS.	NO.	ACS.	RS.
Wet ...	248⅓	497⅘	288¾	142¾	390	172	23	59	92	150¾	634	207⅜
Dry ...	51⅔	222	87	26¼	154	37¾	205	1,348	30	165	1,481	37⅛

The cases were not selected; each case was inspected to see that no extra value existed by reason of wells or buildings, &c.; and the settlement officer concludes that the statement may be accepted as correct. Some comment, however, is necessary. (1) The dry land sales are only 448, including only 3,204 acres in a period of about eight years; that this was, even approximately, the area sold in five taluks comprising 1,191,152 occupied dry acres is impossible, especially if land approached the value given in the table, and considering the density of the population, the eagerness for land in most of the taluks, and the large sales registered subsequent to 1877. Indeed in Erode and Satyamangalam the smallness of the area sold shows that the prices obtained, or the reasons for the sale, were exceptional, since the wet land sales were more than double those

Price of land.

Registration results for a series of years are as follows :—

Taluk.	Average price per acre.											
	1868–69 to 1872–73.			1873–74 to 1877–78.			1876 to 1877 (just before famine).			1877 to 1878 (during famine).		
	Wet.	Dry.	Garden.	Wet.	Dry.	Garden.	Wet.	Dry.	Garden.	Wet.	Dry.	Garden.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.
Bhaváni	107	52	235	166	196	411	41	161	365	200	231	693
Coimbatore ...	464	166	280	484	189	358	723	292	150	376	107	175
Dhárápuram ...	476	44	172	556	34	166	633	41	163	455	31	121
Erode	229	36	146	405	65	195	385	89	273	637	70	178
Karúr	738	41	204	823	41	231	960	41	220	808	33	203
Kollégál	132	42	...	107	43	...	158	40	...	75	58	...
Palladam	283	60	148	299	47	137	310	43	116	277	40	145
Polláchi	109	36	...	104	35	...	107	32	...	148	28	...
Satyamangalam ...	211	19	82	295	66	123	300	172	112	385	29	97
Udamalpet ...	381	79	82	394	72	63	427	65	50	403	50	80
Zemindáris ...	...	42	65	...	30	49	...	33	34	...	35	52

of dry land, whereas the wet area in those taluks is not above 4 per cent. of the whole cultivable area. (2) As stated above, these are open to the objection that only valuable or at least saleable lands come under registration. (3) Except in Bhaváni there seems an undue proportion under the higher classes as might be expected from the second reason. As regards Erode the sales only refer (*vide* report) to the lands close to the Kálingaráyan channel, and these are notoriously valuable, being used for growing the food of the labourers, and fodder and pasture for cattle used on the wet lands: most of the lands are held by wet land ryots, as the proverb says "Get dry lands and garden close together," *à fortiori* dry land and wet land. The minute areas sold in the higher priced lands show that they are exceptionally valuable, and in Erode, possibly irrigated by baling from the channel; *e.g.*, Erode lands priced at the enormous rates of Rs. 224 per acre were only 4·48 acres in area, and these were comprised in 3½ cases, or 1¼ acres per case. Other lands priced at Rs. 222 were only 1·26 acres and were comprised in 4 cases or 31 cents per case; in Coimbatore the highest price but one was Rs. 79; the one exception was at Rs. 220, but was only 31 cents. The Satyamangalam average is Rs. 37¾, but if the single case above Rs. 50 be taken out, viz., 12 acres at Rs. 222 each (a very extraordinary entry), the average falls to Rs. 22; the highest priced dry lands in Erode are entered as black lands under classes 4 and 5, but the whole area of dry black lands in the taluk is only 352 out of 293,708 acres, or $\frac{1}{810}$, whereas the sale table includes 23 acres or $\frac{1}{10}$ of the lands sold, a quite undue proportion; moreover as all dry black lands are in one village (Arac'chalúr) and are mostly unoccupied, it appears as if wet lands had been wrongly described as dry. As a guide to the general sale value of dry lands, the settlement table must not be taken by itself. For wet lands it is more trustworthy as these are of small area and are all valuable, while the variation in value is, so far as regards channel lands, comparatively limited. It is not known why garden lands are omitted.

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Office.	1878–79 to 1882–83.					
	Wet.		Dry.		Garden.	
	Total area sold.	Average price per acre.	Total area sold.	Average price per acre.	Total area sold.	Average price per acre.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	ACRES.	RS.	ACRES.	RS.	ACRES.	RS.
Aravakkuric'chi ...	123	405	11,321	15	572	59
Avanási	143	117	2,310	13	4,564	31
Bhaváni	153	73	4,186	15	1,290	45
Dhárápuram ...	797	500	9,135	11	2,351	34
Erode	705	366	7,251	25	70	88
Gópichettipálaiyam	...	...	...	...	...	...
Karúr	1,057	277	9,769	14	461	83
Kollégál	637	113	1,968	37	...	...
Kángayam ...	4	100	10,245	16	258	78
Méttuppálaiyam ...	86	123	1,426	8	232	55
Palladam	290	162	11,131	23	3,999	52
Perundurai ...	111	50	13,771	21	...	...
Polláchi	372	145	33,878	25	433	62
Satyamangalam ...	1,348	249	2,387	19	1,505	55
Udamalpet ...	1,068	294	25,268	22	713	57
DISTRICT ...	**6,894**	**266**	**144,046**	**20½**	**16,448**	**45**

Office.	1882–83.					
	Wet.		Dry.		Garden.	
	Total area sold.	Average price per acre.	Total area sold.	Average price per acre.	Total area sold.	Average price per acre.
	8	9	10	11	12	13
	ACRES.	RS.	ACRES.	RS.	ACRES.	RS.
Aravakkuric'chi ...	33	356	2,724	20	62	74
Avanási	29	129	970	11	924	33
Bhaváni	30	80	1,493	13	307	58
Dhárápuram ...	194	457	2,897	9	235	30
Erode	118	410	1,645	26	7	200
Gópichettipálaiyam	75	241	232	15	63	54
Karúr	290	255	2,965	19	180	81
Kollégál	130	98	545	29	...	...
Kángayam ...	...	...	2,674	15	162	67
Méttuppálaiyam ...	55	86	842	10	152	51
Palladam	69	147	3,777	17	1,114	49
Perundurai ...	9	56	3,215	20	...	...
Polláchi	59	161	12,911	15	77	48
Satyamangalam ...	248	251	536	17	320	52
Udamalpet ...	241	266	7,712	18	221	68
DISTRICT ...	**1,580**	**254**	**45,138**	**16½**	**3,824**	**49**

Price of land

The accuracy of this table up to 1877–78 is open to doubt, the prices given for dry lands in some years even in out-of-the-way taluks, such as Bhavâni and Satyamangalam, are so heavy as to lead to a suspicion that they have been wrongly described in the documents, and are really gardens or have wells, or houses, or topes in or on them; *e.g.*, prices (in the tables for individual years) up to Rs. 301 in Coimbatore, Rs. 329 in Bhavâni, Rs. 172 in Satyamangalam, though the next highest price in that taluk was only Rs. 54 and so on; the highest prices are usually far above the average either for the district or for other years in the same taluk. The return up to 1877–78 was prepared rather rapidly for the Famine Commission; and a closer investigation would probably alter the figures to some extent. It will be noticed how entirely they differ from the figures (also taken from registration records up to 1874) given by Mr. Clogstoun as quoted in the footnote below, and extracted from the Settlement Report. The discrepancies are especially noticeable under the head of dry land. It is evident that until the registration records are very carefully and specially gone through, deductions from the figures at all events up to 1877 must be received with caution, especially in the matter of dry lands. The average for the district up to 1877–78 cannot be given, as the areas were not given in the return furnished up to that date, so that a true district average cannot be calculated.

The price entered for garden lands is probably lower than the true price for actual garden land, as the garden is usually or often only part of a field which is sold in a block both dry and garden together; the dry land, though valuable in such cases, is much less valuable than the area actually irrigated.

The next table gives statistics obtained from examining the pattá transfer petitions in the Revenue department; these usually state the price of the land sold and refer to all sorts that have any sale value. All cases have been struck out that were mixed, *i.e.*, that contained lands other than only wet, or only garden, or only dry; also all that were sales of shares only; hence the small area entered in the table:—

Description of land.	1850–51.			1855–56.			1860–61.			1865–66.		
	Sales.	Area in acres.	Average price.	Sales.	Area in acres.	Average price.	Sales.	Area in acres.	Average price.	Sales.	Area in acres.	Average price.
	NO.	ACS.	RS.	NO.	ACS.	RS.	NO.	ACS.	RS.	NO.	ACS.	RS.
Erode. Wet ...	46	102	23	21	57	32	28	41	111	57	68	222
Erode. Dry ..	15	113	9	25	213	3	53	314	7	315	789	14
Erode. Garden	4	12	69	10	21	31	11	23	39	5	6	80

CH. XVIII. THE ECONOMIC POSITION.

Price of land.

Description of land.		1870–71.			1873–74.			1875–76.		
		Sales.	Area in acres.	Average price.	Sales.	Area in acres.	Average price.	Sales.	Area in acres.	Average price.
1		2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
		NO.	ACS.	RS.	NO.	ACS.	RS.	NO.	ACS.	RS.
Erode.	Wet	28	36	296	...	...	...	24	36	364
	Dry	175	865	15	...	...	...	312	1,214	16
	Garden ...	4	5	130	...	...	...	7	11	90
Dhárápuram.	Wet	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	Dry	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	Garden ...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Coimbatore.	Wet	...	...	...	29	90	119	10	42	200
	Dry	...	...	...	97	514	18	76	581	13
	Garden ...	...	...	...	1	3	96	1	3	200
Polláchi.	Wet	6	27	86	14	29	55	14	41	66
	Dry	78	817	20	44	281	32	84	829	18
	Garden ...	2	3	150	...	...	...	...	...	...
Udamalpet.	Wet	15	18	271	33	50	189	41	80	276
	Dry	78	824	23	80	614	24	251	1,827	32
	Garden ...	...	...	...	2	12	164	...	...	...

Description of land.		1878–79.			1880–81.			1882–83.		
		Sales.	Area in acres.	Average price.	Sales.	Area in acres.	Average price.	Sales.	Area in acres.	Average price.
		11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
		NO.	ACS.	RS.	NO.	ACS.	RS.	NO.	ACS.	RS.
Erode.	Wet	...	...	...	25	33	285	25	30	369
	Dry	...	...	...	108	703	14	132	797	15
	Garden ...	...	...	...	11	28	77	6	16	99
Dhárápuram.	Wet	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	Dry	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	Garden ...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Coimbatore.	Wet	4	21	109	8	12	155	1	2	136
	Dry	32	238	11	30	172	17	6	54	7
	Garden ...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Pollá-chi.	Wet	4	17	92	11	42	163	5	8	208
	Dry	77	617	30	99	624	33	86	763	33
	Garden ...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Udamalpet.	Wet	33	58	633	9	14	185	34	77	241
	Dry	79	558	24	32	228	28	124	1,105	30
	Garden ...	1	3	152	...	...	...	1	73	137

Garden rates were abolished in 1854 with regard to all new wells, and in 1864 for all wells, so that gardens are not easily distinguishable after that date. It is probable that this table gives a fairer average of all saleable dry lands than the former, since all dry lands that appeared alone have been taken into account; a few lands that yielded prices far higher than the average for the

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year have been omitted as they probably contained wells or trees. In most cases the lands have been compared with the accounts and the karnams have also been consulted.

Price of lan

The figures differ materially from the registration figures, chiefly, it is believed, because all classes, even the poorest, that have sale values have been included.

The next table shows that much land, though saleable, bears a price much smaller than that shown by the registration returns; it gives the average maximum and minimum prices for considerable areas in Erode taluk:

Description of land.	Fasli 1270.						Fasli 1280.						Fasli 1292.					
	Minimum.			Maximum.			Minimum.			Maximum.			Minimum.			Maximum.		
	Number of sales.	Extent.	Average price.	Number of sales.	Extent.	Average price.	Number of sales.	Extent.	Average price.	Number of sales.	Extent.	Average price.	Number of sales.	Extent.	Average price.	Number of sales.	Extent.	Average
	NO.	ACS.	RS.	NO.	ACS.	RS.	NO.	ACS.	RS.	NO.	ACS.	RS.	NO.	ACS.	RS.	NO.	ACS.	RS
Dry.	23	157	3	16	70	17	32	175	3	48	201	28	22	160	3	41	182	30

In the very few cases found from 1825 to 1850, the prices given were inconsiderable, viz., from Rs. 4 to Rs. 37 for wet land, Rs. 3 to Rs. 4 for dry land, and Rs. 17 to Rs. 23 for gardens, per acre. There is no information for years prior to 1825. Erode taluk is fairly typical, save that, owing to the pressure of population on area and the great value of its channel-fed wet lands, prices are generally higher than in other taluks; the wet lands of Karúr and Dhárápuram, and the fine red and black dry lands of Polláchi, Udamalpet and Coimbatore, are exceptions.[35]

The traffic in land is very large, the registration tables showing a recent annual average of about 90 lakhs, but most of this is certainly between ryots. These 90 lakhs, however, do not all represent sales, but include all engagements, especially mortgages, having reference to land. The actual sales for the five years ending 1892–93 averaged about 33 lakhs per annum, but the figure is unduly increased by the abnormal transactions in the last year of the quinquennium. The ratio of all transactions to the

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[35] In his *Progress of the Madras Presidency during Forty Years*, p. cxliv. 2nd edition, Mr. Srínivása Rághavaiyangár gives the prices fetched at different times by certain Coimbatore lands. These statistics afford no indication of the average price of all land in the district (and indeed I know of none that do), but they show conclusively the great rise that has occurred in the price of land. Thus 6·1 acres of wet land, which were sold for Rs. 1,200 in 1848, fetched Rs. 1,900 in 1880; three wet fields measuring 8·42 acres sold for Rs. 750 in 1858 and for Rs. 1,850 in 1887; two fields fetched Rs. 500 in 1872 and Rs. 1,500 in 1892; another was sold for Rs. 100 in 1873 and for Rs. 600 in 1890.—ED.

CH. XVIII. THE ECONOMIC POSITION. — Price of land.

kinds of land has not been ascertained, but in 1880–83 sales averaged as follows:—wet lands 1,567 acres, or $\frac{1}{55}$ of the total occupied wet area; dry lands 35,726 acres, or about $\frac{1}{50}$ of the total occupied dry area excluding gardens; and gardens 3,462 acres, or about $\frac{1}{118}$ of the nominal garden area of 408,326 acres, and $\frac{1}{72}$ of the area (251,275 acres) actually irrigated. Of the prices realized, nearly $\frac{8}{24}$ are credited to the small area of wet land, $\frac{13}{24}$ to dry land, and a little above $\frac{3}{24}$ to gardens. Acre for acre, wet lands as sold were worth Rs. 255, or $13\frac{1}{2}$ times as much as dry land and $5\frac{1}{2}$ times as much as gardens, while gardens were worth Rs. 46, or $2\frac{1}{2}$ times as much as dry land, which averaged Rs. 19 per acre. The low garden rate is due to the fact that much nominal garden in a given field is only dry land, a 6-acre field probably having only 3 to 4 acres of actual garden, the total area actually irrigated being only 251,275 acres out of a field area of 408,326; hence the actually irrigated area is probably worth about Rs. 60 per acre. The average value of the dry lands (Rs. 19) must not be taken as a gauge of the value of poor lands, such as classes VII 4, 5, and VIII 3, 4, 5; a vast area has little or no sale value, being so unproductive: an examination of the tables from 1878 to 1883 shows that sales are much larger where the generality of dry lands are most valuable; in Polláchi where the soil is generally rich, and the south-west monsoon abundant, and in Udamalpet, with its high priced black cotton lands, the sales averaged in five years almost five-twelfths of the total district sales, though the occupied area of these two taluks, including pálaiyapats, is about two-twelfths of the district occupied area. The number of professional money-lenders in these taluks possibly accounts for the large sales, and the value of the lands for the money-lenders. Since, therefore, the average price of Rs. 19 has been struck upon the sale of an unduly large proportion of the valuable lands of the district, a lower rate (Rs. 12) has been taken in roughly estimating the capital value of the *total* occupied dry lands. The sales of garden lands in the Palladam taluk, including Avanási, were very heavy, aggregating 8,563 acres out of 16,448 acres sold from 1878 to 1883, or above one-half, whereas the garden area of the taluk is about two-elevenths of the district garden area, and the dry sales were only about one-eleventh of the total dry sales.

The prices realized at Government sales for arrears are no guide, partly for reasons given above as to the value of lands brought to such sale, partly because, if valuable, they are often collusive; civil court sale prices are also useless, partly because they are of limited publicity, but chiefly because the purchaser is frequently the decree-holder, who buys for a nominal sum.

CHAPTER XIX.

GAZETTEER.

BHAVÁNI TALUK.

CHAP. XIX BHAVÁNI.

General description.

THIS is a large taluk of about 715 square miles. It is situated on the north-east corner of the district, and is bounded by the Cauvery on the north and east, by the Bargúr hills on the north-west and west, by the Satyamangalam taluk on the west, and Erode on the east.

Hills.

The taluk is extremely hilly, and is largely unsurveyed and partially unexplored, its low hills and their villages being out of the way, unhealthy, and of little present value. Roughly speaking there are 400 square miles of hills and forest. The Pálamalai and Bargúr hills are the chief ranges, and the Úrác'chikkóttai hill, surmounted by a temple, three miles north of Bhavání, is a striking feature from its sharp conical shape. This taluk was formerly one of the principal routes to and from Mysore, the Kávéripuram pass being alternately used for purposes of war and trade. It was by this route that Buchanan entered Coimbatore in 1800 on his tour of inspection, but it is now almost abandoned in favour of the route *viâ* Satyamangalam and Hássanúr, while the Bargúr ghát route also takes off some portion of the foot or bullock traffic.

Rivers.

The drainage is to the Cauvery, either direct or by the Bhavání on the south; a chain of tanks called the Áppakkudal series runs from the hills in the north to the Bhavání on the south.

Soil.

The rocks are, as everywhere, gneissose, intersected by veins of quartz and in places covered by masses of once fluid limestone (Buchanan). The soils that are the product of these rocks are in general poor, much of the clay from the felspathic portion of the gneiss having been washed down to more fortunate districts; seven-eighths of the soils are red, above three-fourths being red sand or gravel. The gardens are productive as in other taluks, but the distance from markets renders their produce less valuable.

Forests.

The forests are on an imposing scale, and one object of the Bargúr ghát was the opening up of these hills for supplies of timber and forest produce, and to induce planters to settle thereon. It has been also suggested, and surveys have been made with that end, that timber and fuel should be floated down the Cauvery to Erode.

CHAP. XIX. BHAVÁNI.

An experiment was recently made in this direction with successful results. Further experiments on a larger scale have been ordered.

Fauna.

Feræ are of course very varied; wild animals of every species are common and numerous; rewards are given for, and numerous deaths are caused by, tigers and cheetahs. Bison are common on the hills, and the forests of the northern portion of this taluk and Satyamangalam are the special home of the elephant.

Domestic animals are also plentiful owing to the abundance of waste lands and the proximity of the forests for pasture; an ordinary ryot often owns ten or twelve head of cattle, whereas in Erode he would have three or four. The official numbers are totally misleading; it has been found in villages that the cattle and sheep owned merely by the ryots who had fallen into arrears of revenue, far exceeded the total number entered in the returns. Owing however to the absence of big ryots or hereditary chieftains, there are no great stock-breeders. There are two special breeds, viz., Bargúr and Álambádi. The former partakes of the Mysore characteristics; the Álambádi breed is also raised at Kávéripuram and other villages in the north. Fish are good and plentiful in the two rivers.

Climate.

The climate of the taluk on the whole is feverish and hot in the plains, and its hills are by no means above fever range. It shares in both monsoons, but, except on and near the hills, the general rainfall in the south-west monsoon is not so good in the interior as at Bhaváni itself where the rain-gauge is kept, owing to the position of Bhaváni at the end of the Bhaváni river valley, down which the clouds sweep; from Erode rain may frequently be observed at Bhaváni and even Perundurai when none falls elsewhere. Hence the rain returns are somewhat incorrect, except for the south of the taluk, and the tanks receive no supply till the north-east monsoon. The south-west winds are little felt in this taluk.

Communications.

Roads are not very good except in good weather, being fair-weather roads on the plains and rough in the passes. They traverse the taluk in convenient directions, all converging at Bhaváni, except that portion of the Erode-Satyamangalam road which touches the south of the taluk. The total length of roads in the taluk is 148 miles, and all the roads are in charge of the Local Boards. The most important of them are the following :—

(1) The Bargúr ghát road from Erode to Andiyúr *viá* Bhaváni.

(2) Road from Bhaváni to Attáni.

(3) Road from Bhaváni to Ammápéttai; this runs in a north-easterly direction for about 16 miles, and touches the villages of Késarimangalam and Singampéttai.

Communications.

At Bhaváni town there are two fine masonry bridges, one of twenty-six arches across the Cauvery on the road from Salem, built at a cost of about two lakhs, and the other of nine arches across the Bhaváni river, to the Erode taluk. These are tolled, and the toll farm of the latter is rented at an annual rate of Rs. 3,700; the Cauvery bridge is tolled on the Salem side, it being arranged that carts paying at the Bhaváni bridge pass free at the Cauvery bridge. These bridges are of immense use, especially in the months of flood, viz., from June to January. The main road from Madras to the Nílgiris passes over these bridges, but through traffic is now rare owing to the railway.

There is no railway or telegraph in this taluk; Erode is the nearest station.

Administration.

The taluk lies in the Sub-Collector's division. The chief local revenue officer is the tahsildar (salary Rs. 150). He is also a magistrate, and he is assisted in both revenue and magisterial work by the taluk sheristadár. The taluk forms a single police division under an inspector and is divided into six police station charges. In respect to civil actions it is situated within the jurisdiction of the district munsif of Erode. The number of villages, including the town of Bhaváni, is 66, and all but three are inhabited. All the villages are Government villages.

Population.

The population in 1891 was 119,869, of whom 59,034 were males and 60,835 females. Hindus number 116,337, Musalmans 1,138 and Christians 2,394. The population has increased by 27·35 per cent. since 1881, and there are now 168 persons to the square mile. The number of occupied houses is 26,163, and there are on an average 4·6 inmates to each house. Of the male population 91·96 per cent. are illiterate, 6·49 per cent. can read and write and 1·55 per cent. are learning. Of the females 99·75 per cent. are illiterate. Tamil is the mother-tongue of 86,839 persons, Telugu that of 22,329 and Canarese that of 9,295. Classified by means of subsistence the population consists of 65,629 landholders and tenants, 9,236 agricultural labourers, 14,672 general labourers, 8,449 traders, 3,806 weavers, 10,216 other artisans and 7,861 others.

The land.

The area of ryotwári land in the taluk is 439,100 acres and that of minor ináms 14,900. There are neither whole ináms nor zemindáris. Of the ryotwári land about 243,200 acres are forest and 49,800 acres are unfit for cultivation. Of the remainder 131,000 acres are in occupation, and the area available for extension of cultivation is thus 15,100 acres. The area cropped in 1892–93 was 123,800 acres of ryotwári land and 13,200 acres of minor inám, or about 1·14 acres per head of the population. Including the area cropped more than once the total extent was 147,200 acres, which gives about 1·23 acres to each inhabitant.

CHAP. XIX. BHAVÁNI. The land.

Cumbu is the principal grain and is grown on nearly 83,000 acres. There are 16,000 acres under cholum and 12,000 acres under ragi. Rice is cultivated only to a very small extent, the area under it being about 500 acres. There are 4,200 acres under oil-seeds, 2,000 acres under cotton and 1,400 acres under tobacco. There is no material difference between this taluk and the neighbouring one of Erode in the matter of dry and garden crops; a little ragi is grown on dry lands near the hills, and, as in one or two of the northern villages of Erode, sunn hemp (*Crotolaria juncea*) is grown in some of its southern villages. Sénaikkizhangu (*Caladium nymphæifolium*) is grown to some extent near Bhaváni, some roots attaining a weight of 100 or 120 lb., and 25 lb. being common. Wet lands grow ragi and paddy, and there is but a small area of special crops. The south-west monsoon is better in Bhaváni than in Erode, and its cumbu crop is seldom a failure; the dry lands too are less worn out. Crops and seasons are tabulated below:

Crops.	Sowing time.	Reaping time.
	Dry.	
Cumbu	July-August	October-November.
Ragi	June-July	Do.
Cholum	October-November ...	February.
Cotton	June-July	Next year.
Gingelly	March to May	August.
	Garden.	
Cumbu	July and August ...	October-November.
Ragi	June and July	Do.
Cholum	October-November ...	March.
Gingelly	March to May	August.
Tobacco	January or November ...	July-March.
Chillies	September	December to March.

Of the total area of ryotwári holdings in fasli 1302 the dry lands comprised 126,700 acres and the wet or irrigated lands 1,455 acres. The average assessment per acre in fasli 1302 was As. 14–3 for dry and Rs. 6–3–0 for wet, or As. 15–3 for all lands taken together. There were in that year 6,471 single and 8,025 joint pattás, and 5,115 of the former and 5,519 of the latter were for sums below Rs. 10. The normal land revenue of the taluk is Rs. 1,10,600 and the cesses charged on land revenue amount to Rs. 17,400.

Irrigation.

Except one tank in Mukásippudúr, supplied by drainage water from the Attavanaipputtúr channel, the whole irrigation is either from rain-fed tanks or from tanks supplied by jungle and hill streams. Baling is also resorted to from the Bhaváni river, and is fairly good, though the soil is somewhat water-logged

Irrigation.

in the lands near the anicut where the river is banked up and the lands low. The river is perennial and the lift usually easy, so that good crops are grown. The Ennamangalam tank was repaired by Government in 1884 at a cost of Rs. 19,000 and irrigates an extent of about 114 acres. There are several other ruined tanks and anicuts over jungle streams which would probably pay for restoration. The tanks at Ariyakkavundanúr and Nagalúr as well as the Chittár river have been made over to certain ryots on favourable terms. There was a celebrated project for extending Cauvery irrigation by the Nerinjippéttai anicut; this is an ancient native structure which used to irrigate land on both sides of the Cauvery, but breached in the eighteenth century (Buchanan). Sir Arthur Cotton revived the scheme, partly to develop irrigation, partly to tame the then unembanked Cauvery by relieving it of flood waters, a matter still of importance as floods are higher now than before; that of July 1882 was the highest ever known within the memory of man, and that of November 1880 was second only to it. The scheme has, however, been condemned and further investigation of the project stopped.

In addition to the sources of irrigation described above, there are 4,084 irrigation wells in the taluk. The total area irrigated in 1892–93 was 16,700 acres, or about 11 per cent. of the occupied area. If the area irrigated more than once be included again, the total extent of land irrigated comes to 23,800 acres.

Agricultural stock.

The agricultural stock in the taluk is shown in the marginal table. Interpreting ploughing cattle to mean bulls, bullocks and male buffaloes, there is one pair to every 14·13 acres in occupation, the district average being one pair to 15·59 acres; there are 32 cows and cow buffaloes to every 100 inhabitants against a district average of 23; and there are 75 sheep and goats to each hundred acres in occupation, the average for the district as a whole being 51.

Bulls and bullocks	20,185
Cows	33,445
Male buffaloes	453
Cow buffaloes	5,385
Young stock	23,189
Sheep	70,645
Goats	38,515
Ploughs	16,520
Carts	1,315

Industries.

Industries other than agriculture are of little importance. Natural products are rural and forest only; manufactures are gunny, carpets, common country cloths and wares. Gunny is prepared to a considerable extent in the villages where it is grown, and cotton carpets are particularly well woven and dyed at Bhaváni, the Cauvery water being found especially valuable for giving brilliance and fastness to the dyes.

There is a moderate trade in forest produce, and áváram (*Cassia auriculata*) bark from the several jungles is largely collected and exported for tanning purposes.

CHAP. XIX. BHAVÁNI. Places of interest.

Bhaváni: population 7,341, of whom 7,120 are Hindus, 181 Musalmans and 40 Christians. As many as 1,276 are traders and 887 are weavers. The town is situated at the confluence of the Cauvery and Bhaváni and is the head-quarters of the taluk. It has a police station, a post office, a sub-registrar's office, a local fund hospital, two travellers' bungalows and a chatram. It is now a place of importance merely by reason of its sacred position, which attracts large numbers of pilgrims, especially from Palghat. The temple of Sangama (confluence) Íswara is situated at the end of the tongue of land at the actual confluence, the bathing gháts occupying the extreme point of the rock; deaths by drowning at this point sometimes occur when the rivers are high. The temple is well sculptured and contains some inscriptions. There is also an old fort, of which the walls are still standing. It is said to have been built by a poligar who once held it under the Madura kings.

It is related that four asuras attempted to steal a vessel of nectar (amritam) presented by Vishnu to a devout rishi (Parásaramuni); the latter prayed to Vishnu, who sent Kális; they slew the asuras and guarded the nectar. At the close of the rishi's devotions the nectar was found solidified, and was at once worshipped by the Muni as 'Amrita lingam.' Several rishis are related to have attained salvation by bathing at this sacred confluence. The place was formerly selected as the head-quarters of the Collector, who had charge of part of Salem, and the bungalow was built by Mr. Garrow. On the removal of the district head-quarters to Coimbatore in 1805, the town lost its chance, and has never since been more than a halting place for through traffic and for pilgrims. It was also at one time the seat of a district munsif. The town is full of Bráhmans attached to the temple; other residents are the usual attendants of a temple and their dependants. It bears no good name and is full of petty intrigue and cabal. The London Mission has a branch station here under a catechist. Good cotton cloths and carpets are made but there are no other industries.

Kávéripuram: population 6,725, of whom 5,902 are Hindus, 81 Musalmans and 742 Christians; police station. It is situated on the right bank of the Cauvery, in the extreme north of the taluk, and contains a large number of Canarese Bráhmans. There is an old well-sculptured Siva temple here with many inscriptions; also a ruined fort. The fort was formerly of some importance as it stands at the mouth of one of the passes from Mysore, and was an out-post of Tirumal Náyak of Madura against the inroads of the Kartars of Mysore. In 1768 it was captured by Colonel Wood; the following year, after a most spirited defence by Faisan, it was retaken by Hyder. The fort and pass were points of strategic importance

throughout the Mysore wars, the pass being much used for convoys in the final struggle. A weekly market is held on Monday.

Places of interest.

Nadukkával, or the 'middle guard,' is a small village of 168 inhabitants and lies just at the spot where the Bhaváni road enters the Kollégál taluk; it was a *chauki* where the customs were collected and a guard was placed to prevent smuggling and incursions from Mysore, and also to protect travellers. There is now a chatram which is used merely as a halting place by travellers; in Buchanan's time a man was paid to supply milk, &c., to travellers. The road is not much used now except for foot traffic.

Andiyúr: population 7,647, of whom 7,465 are Hindus, 138 Musalmans and 44 Christians; police station and travellers' bungalow. It lies near the foot of the Bargúr ghát and is 12 miles north-west of Bhaváni. There is an old Siva temple finely sculptured, with inscriptions on the walls. One of them records the gift of lands to the temple by private parties, but it bears no date. There is also an old fort here. The Bhaváni taluk was formerly named 'Andiyúr' after this village. A weekly market is held on Monday at which about a hundred head of cattle are usually brought for sale.

Gettisamudram: population 2,583. It is 14 miles from Bhaváni and contains an old Siva temple with inscriptions. A car festival is celebrated here annually in the month of August in honour of the god Gurunáthaswámi. A large cattle market is usually held during this festival, at which about 15,000 people assemble.

Nerinjippéttai: population 1,045, of whom 686 are Hindus, 37 Musalmans and 322 Christians. It is one of the chief stations of the Coimbatore Roman Catholic Mission. It contains a police station and a travellers' bungalow. There was formerly at this place a stone anicut across the Cauvery. According to Buchanan, it was a large place in the eighteenth century, but the inhabitants of three hundred houses left the town during the administration of Lord Cornwallis, as they were unable to pay the heavy contributions levied by Jamál Khán. Previous to that emigration, the place contained many traders and cotton-weavers.

Sámpalli: population 2,698, of whom 2,187 are Hindus, 28 Musalmans and 483 Christians. It is 32 miles north of Bhaváni and contains an old Siva temple and a fort. It is one of the Coimbatore Roman Catholic Mission stations and has a police station and a local fund dispensary. A weekly market is held here every Thursday.

Kavundappádi: population 5,443, all of whom are Hindus; police station; travellers' bungalow and chatram. A market is

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Places of interest.

held here every week on Thursday. The majority of the inhabitants are good farmers and live chiefly by agriculture.

Bargúr: population 4,059, situated in a valley amongst the hills of the same name; distance from Bhaváni 26 miles, north-north-west. The Bargúr range lies between Bhaváni and Kollégál taluks and is connected on the north and west with the Kollégál hills. It is a long narrow plateau watered by the river of the same name, ending in the Bargúr pass leading into Mysore. It is 30 miles in length and about 3,000 feet in height, with peaks rising to above 4,000 feet. The climate is dry, but water is obtained freely by digging wells. The hills are not affected by either monsoon and are healthy. The inhabitants are chiefly Canarese Lingáyats. The Bargúr cattle are well known. Small game, deer, panthers, tigers and bison are to be met with. The Bargúr ghát, along which passes the road from Erode to Kollégál, is passable by carts, the gradient being one in sixteen.

Áppakkudal: population 1,903, all of whom are Hindus; distance from Bhaváni 7½ miles, north-west. There is an old Siva temple, well-sculptured and containing inscriptions. There is also a copper-plate grant in the temple. Áppakkudal was sold by Hyder to a banker named Valman Dás, who gave sixty thousand pagodas on condition of holding it as a Jágír. It then contained between three and four hundred houses. It was invaded about the close of the eighteenth century by the British. After the invasion a famine followed, which destroyed a great part of the inhabitants. The place seems to have now recovered its former prosperity.

Mailampádi: population 2,986; distance from Bhaváni 5 miles, north-north-west. A weekly market is held here on Saturday at which about 300 head of cattle are brought for sale.

Salanagaippálaiyam: population 2,416; distance from Bhaváni 8 miles. Corundum is found in the neighbourhood.

COIMBATORE TALUK.

COIMBATORE.

General description.

THIS fine taluk may be considered the most important and interesting in the district, not merely from its being the head-quarter taluk containing the town which gives its name to the district and is the chief centre of administration and trade, but from its own merits in the matter of climate, soil, and position, and from its comprising on a larger or smaller scale something of interest to the agriculturist, merchant, forester, educationist, missionary, antiquarian, and

sportsman. It is situated in the north-west corner of the district, at the foot of the Nilgiris and their spurs, which bound it on the west and north; the Palghat gap is close to its south-western extremity; Polláchi and Palladam taluks bound it on the south and east; and Satyamangalam on the north-east. Its total area is 804 square miles.

General description.

Hills.

The taluk is a large open plateau of considerable elevation, sloping away from the foot of the Nílgiris to the south-east, the elevation of Coimbatore itself being between 1,300 and 1,400 feet above sea-level. The Nílgiris and their spurs are noble features in the landscape to the north and west, the higher ranges to the north being partly concealed by a nearer spur, the sharp pinnacle of Lambton Peak being within 5 or 6 miles of the town. To the west the Velliyangiri hills, within 15 miles of the town, form a rampart against the south-west monsoon, and, with the higher ranges behind, afford a splendid sight, whether in the glow of the setting sun or when overhung in the south-west monsoon by magnificent masses of storm-cloud. Further to the south-west is the Palghat gap, through which, in the monsoon, rush masses of vapour, immediately south of the town, and distant only some 6 or 7 miles; on the other side of the narrow gap rise abruptly the spurs of the Ánaimalais known as the Kúchmalai range, while the splendid peaks of the Ánaimalais themselves bound the landscape on the south at a distance of some 35 or 40 miles.

Rivers.

The taluk is traversed by two rivers, the Bhaváni in the north, descending from the Kundahs by way of Méttuppálaiyam, where it is crossed by the road to the Nílgiris, and the Nóyil, which rising in the Velliyangiri hills in the west, traverses the taluk in the south, yielding its water by anicuts to the channels and tanks which enrich the neighbourhood of Coimbatore. The Kallár is an important jungle stream issuing from the Nilgiris.

Soil.

The soils are of the usual Coimbatore character, being derived from the disintegration of the gneissose rocks, interpenetrated with lime, and in parts enriched by the organic vegetable soils from the hills. Nodular limestone (kankar) is abundant, and crystalline limestone is found in several places, notably Madukkarai and Marudamalai near Coimbatore. Rock is very near the surface everywhere, and trees are stunted and poor, especially at Coimbatore, even where carefully pitted and tended. There are considerable tracts of black-cotton soil, as for example around Coimbatore, and red loam is more abundant than in most other taluks.

Forests.

The forests are or were considerable, but the destruction for fuel and timber and cultivation in the Bólampatti valley has been very great; the freshes in the Nóyil are considered to be more uncertain

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Forests.

and violent than before, while the under-current—that sure token of steady feeding from its sources—has so diminished that the anicuts and spring channels below Súlúr are almost useless, and large areas of land have in Palladam taluk been transferred to dry. The reafforestation of these slopes by careful reservation is now the object of the Forest department. The lower slopes of the Nílgiris are also included in this taluk. Village woodlands do not exist, and a striking feature near Coimbatore are uplands entirely bare of tree or hedge; for fuel and for fodder purposes in this windswept tract extensive planting would be useful.

Fauna.

The hill feræ are of the usual kinds: big game are plentiful at the foot of and on the hills. On the plains it is rare to see anything, antelope being but few and other game almost *nil*, whereas some forty years ago officers accompanying troops from the Nílgiris to Palghat found and shot game, including antelope, spotted deer, &c., in abundance. Wolves are occasionally seen.

Fish are abundant in the Bhaváni, and excursions are occasionally made by well-known fishermen to Méttuppálaiyam and its neighbourhood.

Climate.

The climate of this taluk is, except in the hot corners under the hills, such as Méttuppálaiyam, extremely pleasant; its elevation, especially near Coimbatore (1,348 feet), is in itself considerable and accounts for the invariably cool nights and the moderate average maximum of the thermometer; but it owes its chief salubrity to the south-west monsoon, which, pouring through the Palghat gap from the end of May, tempers the heat to such an extent as to render the subsequent three months very pleasant though windy. The rainfall is however scanty, the gap doing little more than pour cool winds and vapour, and not dense clouds, into the country.

Communications.

The main south-west line of the Madras Railway enters the taluk on the east near Singánallúr, and runs in a south-westerly direction with stations at Singánallúr, Pódanúr and Madukkarai. The total length of this line within the taluk is 16½ miles. At Pódanúr a line branches off northwards to Méttuppálaiyam; there are five stations on this line, viz., at Coimbatore, Tudiyalúr, Periyanáyakkanpálaiyam, Káramadai and Méttuppálaiyam, the aggregate length of the line being about 25 miles.

The total length of roads is 266 miles, the most important being the Coimbatore-Méttuppálaiyam road, which runs northwards, passing through Periyanáyakkanpálaiyam and Káramadai. A continuation of this road leads the traveller from Méttuppálaiyam to Kallár at the foot of the Coonoor ghát. There is also a railway line connecting these two places, but it has not yet been opened for traffic; this line forms part of the proposed Nílgiri railway. The Kallár river is crossed by means of a suspension bridge, which

Communications.

was opened in 1894. The road from Coimbatore to Satyamangalam runs north-east through this taluk for a distance of about 28 miles passing through Ganapati, Sravanampatti and Annúr. The only other important road is that which leads from Karúr to Méttuppálaiyam. This road enters the taluk near Annúr and runs north-west for a distance of 20 miles.

Administration.

The taluk contains the district head-quarters; it is usually under a Deputy Collector. The chief local revenue officer under him is the tahsildar (salary Rs. 200). He is also a magistrate, but the bulk of the magisterial work is performed by the stationary sub-magistrate at Coimbatore and the deputy tahsildar and sub-magistrate at Méttuppálaiyam. Coimbatore town with Pódanúr constitutes a police division and is under the charge of an inspector. The rest of the taluk forms a separate division under another inspector and is divided into six police station charges. In respect to civil actions the taluk is situated within the jurisdiction of the district munsif of Coimbatore. The number of villages, including the Coimbatore municipality, is 269, and all but five are inhabited. Of the total number 260 are Government villages and the rest shrotriem or inám.

Population.

The population in 1891 was 307,194, of whom 150,284 were males and 156,910 females. The population of the Government villages is 299,843. Hindus number 295,025, Musalmans 6,802 and Christians 5,101. The population has increased by 14·71 per cent. since 1881, and there are now 382 persons to the square mile. The number of occupied houses is 57,731, and there are on an average 5·3 inmates to each house. Of the male population 83·18 per cent. are illiterate, 13·13 per cent. can read and write and 3·69 per cent. are learning. Of the females 98·78 per cent. are illiterate. Tamil is the mother-tongue of 149,166 persons, Telugu that of 83,424, Canarese that of 65,871 and Hindustani that of 5,361. Classified by means of subsistence the population consists of 123,501 landholders and tenants, 43,564 agricultural labourers, 26,170 other labourers, 36,050 traders, 14,420 weavers, 27,467 other artisans and 36,022 persons of various other professions.

The land.

The area of ryotwári land in the taluk is 474,900 acres, that of minor ináms is 20,900, and that of whole inám villages is 11,000 acres. Of the ryotwári land about 126,200 acres are under forest and 46,700 acres are not available for cultivation. Of the remainder 275,300 acres are in occupation, and the area available for extension of cultivation is thus 26,700 acres. All the minor inám lands are, of course, occupied. The area cropped in 1892–93 was 243,000 acres of ryotwári land and 13,900 acres of minor inám, or about 0·86 of an acre per head of the population. Including the

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area cropped more than once the extent was 282,200 acres, or say one acre to each inhabitant. There is a good deal of interest in agriculture in this taluk, especially near Coimbatore. Cultivation has been taken up by well-to-do families, with excellent results in the way of outturn.

The seasons of the different crops are tabulated as follows:—

Crops.	Sowing time.	Reaping time.
	Dry land.	
Cholum	September and October.	December and January.
Ragi	July	November.
Cumbu	July	Do.
Tinai	September and October.	January and February.
Cotton	Do. do. ...	March.
Bengal-gram	November	February.
Varagu	June and July	Do.
Coriander	September and October.	January.
Dholl and other pulses ...	August and September.	January and February.
	Garden.	
Cholum	February and March ...	June.
Ragi	September	December.
Wheat	October and November.	February and March.
Chillies	July	September and onwards.
Sweet-potato	October and November.	January and February.
Cummin	November	February.
Vendayam	Do.	Do.
Kasubu	April	June.
	Wet.	
Paddy	July and August ...	December and January.
Ragi	June	September.
Sugar-cane	July and August ...	August (next).
Betel	Do. ...	Do.
Plantain	April and May	Next April and May.
Turmeric	June and July	February and March.

Cholum is the principal crop and is grown on 91,800 acres. There are about 9,400 acres under oil-seeds and 22,700 acres under cotton. Cumbu, horse-gram and ragi are the chief dry grains. Rice is cultivated only to a small extent, the area under it being 7,100 acres. Nearly 5,000 acres of land are under tobacco and over 1,000 acres under sugar-cane. The cultivation of coffee is carried on in this taluk, the extent planted in 1892–93 being about 600 acres.

On dry black soil two crops are usually raised, viz., cholum in the south-west and cotton in the north-east monsoon; ragi is also grown near the hills where soil and rainfall are good. In garden lands the speciality is wheat, which is largely grown from October to February; the outturn is considerable. Wheat from Melbourne was introduced in 1882 as an experiment, but failed. European

The land.

vegetables are easily grown from June to February, beet, potatoes, carrots, &c., attaining a good size and quality; the red soil, when well watered, gives an excellent outturn. Guinea grass is grown in some quantity in the municipal gardens, both for sale and for feeding the municipality's bullocks.

Wet cultivation is excellent; for miles round Coimbatore the water of the tanks is utilized to produce splendid crops of paddy, sugar-cane, betel, cocoanuts, plantains, and such like. There is, however, nothing special to note in the practice or results.

The mulberry thrives in Coimbatore, and the growth of the Ceara rubber is being developed near Kallár.

The municipal gardens are features in Coimbatore, but beyond giving a good supply of grass, &c., and using up the unsaleable poudrette, no special result has been obtained; ryots are already perfectly aware that much manure and rich tank-bed soil will yield fine crops and growths. The Saidapet water-lift, which it was hoped would replace the native lift, has failed to make way; not one of the well-to-do ryots who lauded it introduced it in his own garden. The ryot also still prefers to grow in his gardens a crop of cholum, &c., which gives 'straw for the ox and grain for his master,' instead of a crop of guinea grass, which, without artificial irrigation, will not grow in Coimbatore except when other grasses are abundant.

Of the total area of ryotwári holdings in fasli 1302 the dry lands comprised 260,381 acres and the wet or irrigated lands 12,637 acres. The average assessment per acre in fasli 1302 was As. 15–6 for dry and Rs. 6–13–11 for wet, or Rs. 1–3–0 for all lands taken together. There were in that year 15,749 single and 16,211 joint pattás, and 12,119 of the former and 10,540 of the latter were for sums below Rs. 10. The normal land revenue of the taluk is Rs. 3,45,600 and the cesses charged on land revenue amount to Rs. 47,600.

Irrigation.

The principal sources of irrigation are the Nóyil and its tributaries and the Kallár. The Nóyil and its tributaries irrigate about 12,000 acres (including irrigation by lift) in twenty villages by channels taken off from the streams by weirs and anicuts, of which there are eight—Níliváikkál, Pudukkáttupallam, Chitrac'-chávadi, Pérúr or Kuniyamuttúr, Kuric'chi, Coimbatore, Vellalúr, and Singánallúr. About 200 acres in the Madvaráyapuram village are irrigated by two jungle streams. The Kallár has no weirs or anicuts built across it, but earth dams supply two channels called Álávali and Marudávali which irrigate 1,600 acres in two villages. Besides these there are eleven rain-fed tanks and five smaller jungle streams which are utilized for irrigation. The waste of water under

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these channels is notorious, but is no worse than in other taluks. Tank water, as usual, is more carefully distributed, but the expenditure is still very considerable. There are also 5,455 irrigation wells in the taluk. The area irrigated in 1892–93 was 39,100 acres, but if the extent irrigated more than once be included again, the total area comes to about 50,700 acres.

Agricultural stock.

The agricultural stock in the Government villages is shown in the marginal table. Interpreting ploughing cattle to mean bulls, bullocks and male buffaloes, there is one pair to every 12·81 acres in occupation, the district average being one pair to every 15·59 acres; there are 13 cows and cow buffaloes to every 100 inhabitants against a district average of 23; and there are 44 sheep and goats to each hundred acres in occupation, the average for the district as a whole being 51.

Bulls and bullocks	45,496
Cows	32,300
Male buffaloes	739
Cow buffaloes	6,886
Young stock	29,814
Sheep	86,696
Goats	43,356
Ploughs	23,794
Carts	3,733

Industries.

Industries other than agriculture are to be found. Sugar-boiling after the rough native fashion is carried on; jaggery of course is largely made. Paper-making, formerly carried on in a small way, has died out. Tanning is very well represented, the two large yards on the road from Coimbatore to Pódanúr turning out large quantities of leather, which is exported to Europe. As a rule, the skins are those of sheep or goats, not ox-hides. Carts and furniture of the common sorts are made in Coimbatore, but there is no fine cabinet or furniture work. Weaving is poorly represented by the commonest manufactures. Silk has been attempted, but was a failure commercially, and the worms are liable to suffer from the heat in the summer. The district distillery is at Coimbatore and turns out a good quantity of fair arrack; a sugar factory has recently been started at Pódanúr. There is a large coffee and cotton factory in Coimbatore owned by Messrs. Stanes, and a large spinning and weaving mill was opened by a company a few years ago. Messrs. Peirce, Leslie and Company have also coffee works here. The railway workshops at Pódanúr are only adapted for repairs and not for building. There are three oil-mills in Coimbatore worked by steam-power. Metal workers are not conspicuous, but one or two goldsmiths are capable of excellent work.

The chief exports are wheat, chillies, tobacco, jaggery and cotton; the first goes to the Nílgiris, the next three to the West Coast, and the cotton to Bombay.

Places of interest.

Coimbatore, in the north-western corner of the taluk, is a town of importance and antiquity, and from its position, command-

Places of interest.

ing the approach to Palghat on the west and to the Gazzalhatti pass on the north, it was formerly of great strategical importance. Originally belonging to the Chéra dominions, it fell to the Madura Náyaks, by whom it was considered one of their chief strongholds, and afterwards to Mysore. During the wars with Hyder and Tippoo it changed masters many times. In 1768 the British took it and again lost it; and in 1783 it was again taken and re-taken. In 1790 the Company's forces a third time occupied it, but Tippoo, after a siege of five months, compelled the garrison to surrender. In 1792 provisionally, and in 1799 finally, the town was ceded to the British, and from that time it ceased to be a military station. It was frequently the head-quarters of both Hyder and Tippoo, the old palace mentioned by Buchanan having been on the site now occupied by the taluk cutcherry. After the British conquest it did not become the district head-quarters till the amalgamation of the two divisions in 1805. At the time of Buchanan's visit it was a moderate-sized town of 2,000 houses of no special features. It is now a municipal town with a population of 46,383, of whom 40,099 are Hindus, 3,414 Musalmans and 2,821 Christians. The number of occupied houses is 6,875. As many as 10,826 of the inhabitants are supported by trade and only 4,169 by agriculture. The weavers and their families number 5,954. The town lies 1,348 feet above sea-level; and being built with particularly wide streets, and possessing good natural drainage, an abundant water-supply, and a cool temperature, it is better situated for the residence of Europeans than most of the towns of the presidency. It is the head-quarters of the local administration, including the Collector, whose office and treasury are near the railway station, the District Judge, whose court is hard by, the Superintending Engineer of the fourth circle and the Executive Engineer in charge of the district, who occupy for their office the cotton godown used by Dr. Wight in the cotton experiments of 1841–49; the Conservator of Forests, Southern Circle, the District Superintendent of Police, the District Surgeon, the Superintendent of the Jail, the Inspectress of Girls' schools, Western Division, the two District Forest Officers, the Local Fund Engineer and the District Registrar. A chaplain is also stationed here, and the beautiful little church is architecturally a pleasing and picturesque feature in the landscape. The central jail accommodating 1,266 inmates is noted for its plan and management, and the civil dispensary under municipal supervision is doing most useful work. Three missions are stationed here, viz., the Roman Catholic French Mission, headed by a Bishop, whose cathedral is a noticeable object on entering the town by rail; the London Mission, whose premises are near the Collector's office; and the Lutheran Mission. The town is the centre of a considerable trade,

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and the coffee works, tanneries, cotton mills and oil presses, worked by steam, give it a marked manufacturing character. There are two native banks which carry on a good business. Pony tongas can be obtained here for journeys to Udamalpet, Polláchi and Satyamangalam. There are two second-grade colleges and three high schools; also a normal school for the training of elementary schoolmasters and another for the training of schoolmistresses. There is an excellent public bungalow, fully furnished. There are two chatrams for native travellers, of which one is open only to Bráhmans and the other to all classes of people.

Méttuppálaiyam is the station of a deputy tahsildar and second-class magistrate, the terminus of the Nílgiri branch of the Madras Railway, and the starting point of the Nílgiri ghát and of the Nílgiri Railway which is now in progress; it is therefore a place of importance. It has a dispensary, a registration office, a post office, a police station, a local fund chatram, hotel, &c., and the post-houses of the agencies for carrying passengers and goods to the hills. It is notoriously hot and unhealthy. The Bhaváni river runs by the town and gives good fishing; game of all sorts is abundant within a short distance. There are more than 100 dolmens in the fields round this place. A weekly market is held on Saturday. There is a native bank in the town. The town comprises the villages of Kariyámpálaiyam, Chikkadásampálaiyam and Ódandurai. The London Mission have a branch station here.

Pérúr or *Mél Chidambaram :* population 1,598; it is 4 miles from Coimbatore and has a remarkable temple of great sanctity; it is one of the few that Tippoo respected both in its buildings and lands. Fergusson has visited the spot and has remarked upon its sculptures; he considers the buildings to be of very recent date (eighteenth century), as shown by the figure of a sepoy with musket, &c., sculptured in the porch or mantapam in front of the shrine, and thinks that its completion was probably interrupted by the Musalman assumption of Mysore; Buchanan's remarks corroborate this. The inner shrine is no doubt of considerable antiquity, as Pérúr is one of the seven Kongu Siválayams. The modern portion of the temple is richly sculptured, but in a coarse and clumsy fashion in a rough material. The compound pillars and several other portions of it are apparently designed in imitation of those at Vellore, but the decadence in art is lamentable to witness. For this reason the effect is greatly disappointing, though doubtless the labour bestowed on the building was immense. Everything about it strikes the visitor as pretentious, vulgar and ungraceful. The *dhvaja stambha* outside the temple is a fine monolith, and in front of it is a neat little tank. The priests of the temple declare that the builder

of the principal portion of the temple was Alagádri Náyudu, brother-in-law of Tirumala Náyudu of Madura. An annual festival, known as the *Ardra Darisanam*, is celebrated here in the Tamil month of Márgazhi (December-January), and people from all parts of Coimbatore and Malabar flock in large numbers to witness the festival. A car festival followed by a *Darisanam* is celebrated on Panguni Uttaram day in March or April.

Another curious festival called the *Náttu Nadavu utsavam*, or the festival of transplanting seedlings, takes place in the Tamil month of Áni (June-July), when the god and goddess, dressed like a Pariah and his wife, are taken in procession amidst a large gathering of people to a neighbouring field. Here the agricultural operation of transplanting seedlings is formally gone through by the god and goddess, and when the ceremony is over they are taken back to the temple. The origin of this festival is said to be connected with the following incident. Sundaramúrti Náyanár, a staunch devotee of Siva, while proceeding on a pilgrimage through the Kongu country arrived one day in the neighbourhood of Pérúr. The deity of the place was unwilling to receive Sundaramúrti and he therefore left the sacred precincts of his shrine and proceeded to an adjacent field with his consort, disguised as a Pariah man and woman respectively. Before proceeding to the field the god forbade Nandi, his favourite bull, to inform Sundaramúrti Náyanár of his whereabouts on pain of severe punishment. A few minutes later the devout disciple arrived and went straight into the temple, but to his great disappointment the god and goddess were not to be found. He retraced his steps and inquired of the Nandi, which remained silent for some time in obedience to its master's command. Sundaramúrti was provoked and threatened to visit the bull with a terrible curse. The bull was afraid and turned its head in the direction of the field. Sundaramúrti took the hint and proceeding to the field sang hymns in praise of the deity. It is said that on returning to the temple the god took his bull to task for having disobeyed his orders and that he cut off a portion of the lower jaw of the animal. The stone image of the bull in front of the inner *dhvaja stambha* of the temple is apparently designed to illustrate this incident.

All about the temple, the streets and the road sides are a number of stone figures, &c., some evidently of great age. There are several *virakkals*, the sculpture of which resembles that on the sculptured dolmens of the Nílgiri Hills. The village contains two chatrams for the accommodation of Bráhman travellers. A weekly market is held on Sunday, at which the various articles required for

CHAP. XIX. COIMBATORE. — Places of interest.

domestic consumption are exposed for sale; cattle are also occasionally brought in for sale. Saltpetre is produced in the vicinity by lixiviation.

The river Nóyil, locally known as the Kánchimahánadi, runs hard by the village and hundreds of pilgrims may be seen bathing in its waters in the month of Tulám or Aippasi (October-November). It is considered very sacred at this spot, and the people of Palghat send the bones of their deceased relatives to be thrown into it; the inhabitants of Pérúr affirm that these bones turn into hard stone and attribute this to the peculiar sanctity of the river.

A few yards from the left bank of the river is a large pit which contains a peculiar kind of white clay. The pit is traditionally reputed to have been the spot where Brahma performed a *yágam* or sacrifice and is called on this account Brahma-gundam. The clay is now used by the Saivites for making the sectarian mark on their foreheads.

Within the temple enclosure is a palmyra tree which is believed by the people to have been in existence for the last five hundred years. It is termed *Iravá panai* or the palmyra that never dies. Near the *dhvaja stambha* is an old tamarind tree whose fruit is said to have no seed.

Káraimadai: population 6,208, of whom 5,886 are Hindus, 312 Musalmans and 10 Christians; post office; railway station on the Nílgiri branch. There is an old Vishnu temple here and the annual car festival held in March in honour of the god Ranganáthaswámi is very grand and well attended. A large cattle fair is generally held towards the close of the festival. On the right-hand side of the railway between Periyanáyakkanpálaiyam and Káraimadai railway stations, between the 322nd and 323rd mile stones, are several large circles of rough boulders on pieces of waste and partly cultivated lands. A serious railway accident occurred near this place in November 1893, by which over 40 persons lost their lives, while many others were injured. A weekly market is held here on Friday.

Singánallúr: this was once a large fortified town, but was destroyed by the Mahráttas. It has gradually recovered under British rule and is now a busy place with a population of 8,719. As many as 1,052 are traders, and the weavers and their families number 248. It is a railway station and has a chatram where Bráhman travellers can halt. It has a very large Bráhman population. It was originally a Bráhman inám granted by one Singammál. Sugar-cane is largely cultivated in the neighbourhood and the ryots have the reputation of being good farmers.

Places of interest.

Annúr: population 2,112, of whom 2,039 are Hindus and 73 Musalmans. It is 20 miles north-north-east of Coimbatore on the road to Satyamangalam, and contains a local fund chatram for the accommodation of natives and a neat little travellers' bungalow for Europeans. There is an ancient Siva temple in the village with inscriptions. The place was once fortified and the old mounds can still be traced. Tradition states it was an opulent and populous town, and its pagodas were resorted to by the people of more than twenty places in the neighbourhood. At a pagoda westward of it are some remarkable figures in pottery of horses of considerable dimensions, calculated to excite curiosity respecting the method in which they, being hollow, were made and baked. At the same place is a sculptured slab with two figures, said to be the effigies of the founder of the temple and his wife, "the man attired "as a warrior, with a sword suspended by a belt from his waist; "the hands of both figures lie upon their breasts joined in the "attitude of prayer. This stone singularly resembles the monu-"ments of our knights and their dames we so frequently see in the "old churches of England. The position of the hands, the rigid "posture of the figures side by side, and the belted warrior are "points of striking similarity." Outside the walls of one of the pagodas are the effigies of seven human beings on separate stones, probably benefactors at different periods. Some fine sculptures ornament the base of the column in front of the pagoda; upon the capital of this shaft, a fire is kept constantly burning during the celebration of a festival in the month of November. A market is held here every Saturday.

Vellalúr : population 5,831; 4½ miles east-south-east of Coimbatore. In May 1842 an earthen pot was dug up at this place which contained 522 Roman silver *denarii*, chiefly of Tiberius and Augustus, with a few of Caligula and Claudius. A descriptive note and list of these will be found in the *Madras Journal of Literature and Science*, xiii. 212. Many *pandavakulis*, containing well-made earthen vessels, are found here. A weekly market is held on Tuesday. There is an old Siva temple here.

Pódanúr: the junction for the Nílgiri branch (Méttup-pálaiyam) and a police station. The climate of Pódanúr is very cool and salubrious and good sport is sometimes obtainable within a few miles. It is 4 miles from Coimbatore. There is a rest camp for troops at the station. A sugar manufactory has been recently opened here.

Sirumugai: population 1,318; distance from Coimbatore 23 miles, north. In the reign of Tippoo Sultan it was the residence of an Amildár dependent on the Asoph of Coimbatore.

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In the hamlet of Pudúr a peculiar kind of coloured cotton cloth with checks is woven by the Canarese-speaking weavers. The cloths are sent to Malabar for sale, and are worn chiefly by the Máppillas.

Tudiyalúr: population 1,254; railway station; distance from Coimbatore 6 miles, north. There is an old Siva temple here and the local deity is called Virundíswaraswámi or the god who gave a feast. According to tradition the deity of some distant place while proceeding towards this village felt quite exhausted and was entertained to a rich banquet by the god. The god was named after this incident Virundíswaraswámi. A weekly market is held here every Monday at which the ordinary provisions are sold; cattle are also brought in for sale.

Kuniyamuttúr: population 7,308, of whom 7,010 are Hindus and 291 Musalmans; union under the Local Boards Act; distance from Coimbatore 3 miles, south-south-west. Rice is husked in this village by machinery. The business is carried on by a company of native merchants registered under the Indian Companies Act. Most of the share-holders are respectable citizens of Coimbatore town.

Sámakkulam (*Sirkár Sámakkulam* or *Kóvilpálaiyam*): population 1,408; chatram for Bráhman travellers; distance from Coimbatore 12 miles, north-east. There is an old Siva temple with many inscriptions. Good jaggery is manufactured here. In the hamlet of Pálaiyam is a ruined fort.

Ganapati: population 3,042; sub-registrar's office; distance from Coimbatore 2 miles, north. Gingelly oil of very good quality is produced here.

Marudamalai: a small hill and a place of pilgrimage; distance from Coimbatore 11 miles, north-west. On the top of the hill is a fine spring which is much esteemed for its pure water. The water is conveyed to Coimbatore town, where it is greatly valued and is also used for manufacturing ærated waters.

Savuripálaiyam: population 3,600, of whom 3,143 are Hindus and 457 Christians. Shirting cloths of good quality are made here, which are second only to those turned out at the Basel Mission works. They are cheap and are remarkable for their durability and fastness of colour.

Mailéripálaiyam: population 1,716; shrotriem village; distance from Coimbatore about 10 miles, south-south-east. It enjoys a salubrious climate.

Tirumalanáyakkanpálaiyam: population 1,243. There is a fine mango orchard here belonging to a private individual, which yields a good number of excellent graft mangoes every year.

Places of interest.

Karadimadai: hamlet of Tenkarai. There is a natural spring in the village, which is remarkable as being hot even in the coldest weather.

Bóluvámpatti (*Bólampatti*): population 1,567; police station; travellers' bungalow near; distance from Coimbatore 10 miles, west. There are two temples in this village, said to have been originally Buddhist temples, though this seems highly improbable. There are also the ruins of an old fort. In the neighbourhood of the village are the Bólampatti reserved forests which yield tamarind, honey, wax, soap-nut, kungiliyam or dammer and mattippál.[1]

DHÁRÁPURAM TALUK.

DHÁRÁPURAM.

General description.

THIS large taluk, in the south of the district, forms part of the sub-division; it is bounded on the south by the Madura district, on the east by Karúr, on the west by Palladam and Udamalpet, and on the north by Erode, from which it is separated by the Nóyil. Its survey area is 836 square miles.

Hills.

There are two or three petty hills, of which Sivanmalai is alone noteworthy as a land mark and a sacred place.

Rivers.

The taluk is an undulating plain sloping generally eastward towards the Cauvery, but with a local watershed near Kángayam falling to the Nóyil on the north and the Amarávati on the south. These two rivers, especially the Amarávati, which has an extensive valley, drain the taluk into the Cauvery. The former is only occasionally in flood, the latter pretty constantly, but at very varying heights, from May to March.

Soil.

The soils are gravelly, stony, and sandy, with the usual loams in bottoms; the surface of the south of the taluk is largely composed of limestone more or less agglomerated, especially in the west. Buchanan specially remarks on the immense fields of calcareous tufa which "in some places cover the surface of the ground in continued masses." The calcareous strata are often many feet thick and "involve small masses of quartz and other stones" which they probably gathered in rolling over the surface while soft and fluid.

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[1] The fragrant resinous juice of *Ailanthus Malabaricus*.

CHAP. XIX. DHÁRÁPURAM. Soil.

The lime and salts in the soil greatly aid well cultivation, especially that of tobacco; saltpetre and earth-salt used to be regularly prepared, but the former is now less frequent, while the manufacture of the latter has been strictly prohibited. There is no black-cotton soil in this taluk. The soil is generally poor in appearance and of low productive power to judge by the crops over a series of years.

Forests.

There are no natural forests or jungles in or near this taluk, which is singularly poor in trees except palmyras and the commonest jungle timber; nor is it so well hedged as Erode and Karúr. During the last few years a systematic attempt has been made at reservation, and the area under forest control on the 30th June 1893 was about 13 square miles. The ryots are chiefly dependent on pastures and fodder crops for the food of their cattle during the hot weather, and the hedges, acacias and wild shrubs give a good deal of goat fodder, fuel and common timber.

Flora.

Trees, except palmyras, are few; jaggery and toddy are largely produced, especially in the Kángayam and Múlanúr neighbourhoods. Other fruit trees are almost entirely absent, but a large number of fruit seedlings were lately grown in Government nurseries, and many were given away gratis, such as pomegranates, pumplemoses, jacks, mangoes, &c. There are a few pumplemoses near Kángayam which give good fruit; one tree (the property of a woman who jealously guards it, selling the fruit, it is said, even to her husband), being renowned throughout the taluk; unfortunately its fruit has no seed.

Fauna.

Wild animals are practically *nil;* there are a few antelope near Dhárápuram, and hares, quail and partridge are fairly abundant.

The domestic breeds are more noteworthy than those of the ordinary taluks, the Kángayam breed of cattle and ponies being widely known. The quality and renown of the breeds are attributed (1) to the extent and quality of the pastures, (2) to the presence of heads of the Vellála caste (pattagárs) who use their very considerable wealth in cattle-breeding. The Pazhayakóttai pattagár has large herds of cattle and ponies, the best of which are exported. These ponies were much in demand when there were no roads and all traffic was by pack-bullocks or ponies along bridle-paths and when the poligars required numbers of hardy ponies for their retainers; but with the introduction of metalled roads and a settled government the local demand has died out, carts being cheaper and robbery no longer a profession. The breeding of ponies has, however, received an impulse during the last ten years by the introduction of Government stallions, whose

services are given gratis. The results have been encouraging and the class of animal has been greatly improved.

Climate.

The climate is tolerably good, April and May being much less oppressive than in Erode or Karúr; by the end of May the south-west monsoon dispels the heat by the violence of its winds. Dhárápuram is immediately opposite to the Palghat gap, and the wind is furious during June and July, it being often impossible to pitch a tent, while the dust penetrates everywhere. But the climate is then healthy and tolerably invigorating. The north-east monsoon proves more trying to native constitutions, especially from November to February, during which time heavy mists and chill winds are frequent and fever prevalent; as in the district generally, this is also the season for cholera.

The rainfall is very small and is chiefly in the north-east monsoon; in 20 years it has averaged only 20 inches per annum.

Communications.

Roads are numerous and tolerably good. In addition there are the usual village roads and lanes (ittéries) some of which are much choked by prickly-pear and are becoming impracticable for carts. The chief roads are the following:—

(1) The Karúr-Méttuppálaiyam road which runs through the taluk in a north-westerly direction for about 24 miles.

(2) The Udamalpet-Karúr road, which runs north-east. The total length of this road within the taluk is 39 miles.

(3) Road from Dhárápuram to Kángayam, running northwards through Údiyúr. Its length is 20 miles.

(4) Road from Dhárápuram to Tiruppúr *viâ* Avanásipálaiyam. This runs north-north-west to a distance of 16 miles within the taluk.

(5) Road from Vellaikkóvil to Múlanúr. It runs northwards for about 16 miles.

Avenues are in very poor condition, owing to the hardness of the soil, the violence of the wind, and the lack of trees generally. There is no railway in this taluk.

Administration.

The taluk lies in the Sub-Collector's division. The chief local revenue officer is the tahsildar (salary Rs. 200). He is also a magistrate, but the bulk of the magisterial work is performed by the stationary sub-magistrate at Dhárápuram and the deputy tahsildar and sub-magistrate at Kángayam. For the sake of convenience, eight villages in the south-west are under the deputy tahsildar of Aravakkuric'chi (Karúr taluk) both in revenue and magisterial matters. The villages being generally large, there are often several monigars and two karnams to a village; the former usually divide the village into ranges, each monigar collecting in his own division only. The taluk forms two police divisions

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Administration.

each under the charge of an inspector, and is divided into seven police station charges. In respect to civil actions 45 villages on the north and east of the taluk are under the Karúr district munsif; the remaining 37 in the south and west are under the district munsif of Udamalpet. The number of villages, including the town of Dhárápuram, is 82, and all of them are inhabited.

Population.

The population in 1891 was 249,221, of whom 122,730 were males and 126,491 females. Hindus number 244,082, Musalmans 4,693 and Christians 446. The population has increased by 27·65 per cent. since 1881, and there are now 298 persons to the square mile. The number of occupied houses is 55,988, and there are on an average 4·5 inmates to each house. Of the male population 89·19 per cent. are illiterate, 8·74 per cent. can read and write and 2·07 per cent. are learning. Of the females 99·61 per cent. are illiterate. Tamil is the mother-tongue of 197,915 persons, Telugu that of 38,166 and Canarese that of 11,595. Classified by means of subsistence the population consists of 114,748 landholders and tenants, 20,000 agricultural labourers, 21,718 general labourers, 25,916 traders, 9,766 weavers, 33,828 other artisans and 23,245 others.

The land.

The area of ryotwári land in the taluk is 455,400 acres and that of minor ináms 79,700 acres. A peculiarity of this taluk is the immense inám area; all temples have land allotments instead of money payments as in the northern division, and this is one reason for the large area; the Madura Government was more liberal in such grants than the Mysore Government, especially the Musalman, which had a greater hold of the northern taluks. There are neither whole inám villages nor zemindáris. Of the ryotwári land 8,300 acres are forest and 43,300 acres are not available for cultivation. Of the remainder 400,000 acres are in occupation, and the area available for extension of cultivation is thus only 3,700 acres. All the minor inám lands are, of course, occupied. The area cropped in 1892–93 was 252,500 acres of ryotwári land and 51,600 acres of minor inám, or about 1·22 acres per head of the population. Including the area cropped more than once the total extent was 336,100 acres, which gives 1·35 acres to each inhabitant. Cholum is the principal crop and is grown on nearly 121,900 acres. The other dry grains are cumbu (70,600 acres), ragi (15,000 acres) and horse-gram (16,300 acres). The area under rice amounts to only 8,900 acres. There are 37,600 acres under oil-seeds, 25,000 acres under cotton and 23,000 acres under fodder crops. Tobacco is grown on 3,200 acres and sugar-cane on 700 acres.

The chief crops and their seasons are tabulated as follows :—

Crops.	Sowing time.	Reaping time.
	Dry.	
Cholum	April-May	August.
Cumbu	August	November.
Tinai	Do.	Do.
Sámai	October	December.
Gram	Do.	March.
Gingelly	May	August.
Varagu	October	December.
Tuvarai	August	February.
Bengal-gram	November	Do.
Uppam cotton	October	March.
Nádam cotton	August	July, &c.
	Garden.	
Cholum	November	February.
Cumbu	May	July.
Tinai	August	November.
Tobacco	November	February.
Garlic	Do.	March.
Chillies	August	November, &c.
Sweet-potato	Do.	January.
Cummin seed	December	February.
Ragi	August	November.
	Wet.	
Paddy—		
Ködai	July	October.
Kuruvai	August	November.
Annadánam	August-September ...	December.
Samba	September-October ...	January-February.
Ragi	July	September.
Sugar-cane	February-March ...	Next year.
Plantain / Sugar-cane }	July	Three years standing (plantains).

The dry crops are not as a rule remarkable ; in the Kángayam division cholum and gingelly are cultivated to some extent with the rains of April-May, but often fail. Gram is usually successful, being grown in the north-east monsoon chiefly, when rain is pretty certain ; the lime soil appears to suit the pulse crops. Tobacco is good, but rather coarse. Fodder crops are grown in parts of this taluk, especially Kángayam, where the cattle are better bred. A crop of cholum or cumbu, chiefly the former, is sown thickly on garden lands, usually in February, irrigated, and cut before earing.

Pastures, though not of good quality, are fairly abundant in this taluk.

Of the total area of ryotwári holdings in fasli 1302 the dry lands comprised 392,800 acres and the wet or irrigated lands 7,200 acres. The average assessment per acre in fasli 1302 was As. 11–9 for dry and Rs. 8–12–2 for wet, or As. 14 for all lands taken together. There were in that year 8,596 single and 13,086

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The land.

joint pattás, and 4,849 of the former and 6,667 of the latter were for sums below Rs. 10. The normal land revenue of the taluk is Rs. 3,68,300, and the cesses charged on land revenue amount to Rs. 52,000.

Irrigation.

Irrigation is confined, save in the case of the Kattángáni and Kongúr tanks, to channels from the Amarávati in the south and east of the taluk. The principal channels are shown in the margin. The Amarávati irrigation is of very good quality. Nothing is known as to the possibility of extending the irrigated area, so far as this depends on the surrounding levels, which have not been taken. But, as is everywhere the case in this district, the quantity of water entering the channels is really far more than is needed for the present area, although the tail villages occasionally experience a lack of water; the want of good field sluices and the absence of regulation accounts for this deficiency. "In four villages," says Mr. Wedderburn regarding the Nanjai-Talaiyúr channel, "there are 329 open "cuts of all dimensions and not a single masonry sluice, the result "being an enormous waste of valuable water." A detailed inspection of this channel shows that there are some so-called built sluices, but that most of them are rough stone, just a shade better than open cuts.

	Áyakat. ACRES.
Nanjai Talaiyúr channel ...	337
Sundakkápálaiyam channel ...	256
Kolinjivádi channel	3,149
Dhárápuram channel	2,421
Dalavóypattanam channel ...	812
Alangiyam channel	1,022

The channels are not in good and clean condition owing to the non-combination of the ryots for kudi-marámat. They are apt to fall very low in September between the monsoons, and again after December. Channel and river banks are nowhere planted with trees or bamboos, although possible in many parts. The Kolinjivádi channel is divided by a dam near Kolinjivádi into three separate channels, viz., Kolinjivádi, Virájimangalam and Nílambúr.

The Kattángáni tank, fed from the Nóyil by an anicut, gets a supply several times during the year, and is seldom dry; two crops, the first being usually cumbu, are regularly raised. The Kongúr tank in the extreme south is of little importance. The tanks have a registered áyakat of 127 and 120 acres respectively.

In addition to the above sources of irrigation there are also 10,299 wells in the taluk which are used for purposes of irrigation. The total area irrigated in 1892–93 was 56,500 acres, or about 12 per cent. of the occupied area, but if the area irrigated more than once be included again, the total extent irrigated comes to about 72,500 acres.

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Agricultural stock.

The agricultural stock in the taluk is shown in the marginal table. Interpreting ploughing cattle to mean bulls, bullocks and male buffaloes, there is one pair to every 21·66 acres in occupation, the district average being one pair to 15·59 acres; there are 23 cows and cow buffaloes to every 100 inhabitants, the average for the district being the same; and there are 57 sheep and goats to each hundred acres in occupation, the average for the district as a whole being 51.

Bulls and bullocks	43,864
Cows	48,191
Male buffaloes	422
Cow buffaloes	9,628
Young stock	49,689
Sheep	177,303
Goats	94,050
Ploughs	26,380
Carts	3,302

Products.

The aqua-marina was largely found at Padiyúr or Pattálai near Kángayam in the beginning of the century, but it is said that the mine is exhausted. Corundum is found near Kángayam, and quartz crystals, limpid or amethystine; iron is not now made as formerly.

Industries.

Industries other than agriculture are practically *nil;* jaggery and sugar are made to some extent, and there are the usual local manufactures of cloth, carts, pots, bricks, and so forth. Trade is considerable only at Dhárápuram. Professions, save those of the officials, the priesthood, a few native doctors, schoolmasters, and some private vakíls, are almost unrepresented.

Bazaars are found in 12 villages. As usual, the weekly markets are the centres of trade, cattle chiefly changing hands at Kángayam, Vellaikkóvil, Kundadam Mélmugam, Muttúr, Múlanúr, Dhárápuram and Údiyúr. Products are merely rural produce, cloth being almost the only manufactured product.

Places of interest.

Dhárápuram: population 7,680, of whom 5,873 are Hindus, 1,574 Musalmans and 233 Christians. As many as 2,370 are traders, while landholders number only 1,233. It is the head-quarters of the taluk, and is a union under the Local Boards Act. It has a police station, a combined post and telegraph office, a sub-registrar's office, a local fund hospital, a high school under the management of the Taluk Board, a travellers' bungalow and several chatrams. The town lies on the left bank of the Amarávati, in a plateau of open country 909 feet above the sea, which stretches nearly to the Palni mountains, about 15 miles south. Dhárápuram is traditionally reputed to have been the head-quarters of the king of Viráta and the place where the Pándavas lived during the last year of their exile. It is also said to have been the capital of the Kshatriya king Bhója, and is otherwise interesting as having in 1667, and again in 1746, been taken from Madura by Mysore. In the campaigns with Hyder and Tippoo it was also a point of some

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DHÁRÁPURAM.
Places of interest.

strategical importance, being captured by Colonel Wood in 1768, retaken by Hyder in the same year, again occupied by the British in 1783, given up by the treaty of Mangalore, and finally resumed in 1790 by General Meadows. In 1792 the fort was dismantled. The town nearly disappeared, but was re-built after 1799 upon plans drawn up by Mr. Hurdis, who made it the head-quarters of the southern division. It was also, for a few years, the seat of the District Court, transferred to Coimbatore in 1828. It is a large well-built town with good streets and a fair trade in country produce, but no special industry. An irrigation channel runs through the town; a sanitary establishment is provided by local funds. Roads from every quarter converge at Dhárápuram. The Roman Catholic and Wesleyan Missions have stations here. There is a good bridge near the town over the Uppár, an affluent of the Amarávati, at the junction of the roads from Palladam, Tiruppúr and Kángayam. A weekly market is held every Tuesday, at which ghee, paddy and chillies are collected for export in exchange for metalware and cloth. Cattle are also brought in for sale. The town is connected by road with three railway stations—Tiruppúr, Perundurai and Karúr—the nearest being 30 miles distant. There is an old Siva temple with inscriptions.

Kángayam: population 6,956, of whom 6,777 are Hindus, 164 Musalmans and 15 Christians. The village, which is 21 miles north of Dhárápuram, was for some years the Sub-Collector's head-quarters, but is now only the station of a deputy tahsildar and sub-magistrate. It has a police station, a sub-registrar's office, a post office, a local fund dispensary, a travellers' bungalow and a chatram. It is a healthy village, tolerably elevated, on a dry gravelly soil. There is no authentic record of its ever having been of much importance, the name having probably nothing to do with Kongu; the Kongu rájás had their capitals elsewhere so far as anything is known. Local pandits derive the name from Gángayan (son of Gangai), which is the appellation under which Subrahmanya is worshipped at Sivanmalai. The Sub-Collector's office has now been converted into a sub-magistrate's cutcherry, police station and sub-jail. The public bungalow adjoins this building. The place is best known for its weekly market, second only to Pollácbi, or perhaps Kunnattúr. A fine breed of cattle is reared here which is generally known as the Kángayam breed. A detailed account of it will be found in the first volume of this manual. At a distance of three-quarters of a mile to the south of the village is a large Siva temple. On the north and east walls, as well as on a stone fixed outside, are inscriptions. A mile from Kángayam, on the road to Karúr, is a dolmen.

Places of interest.

Sivanmalai, 3 miles north of Kángayam, has a population of 4,576 inhabitants. There are five temples here, two of which, dedicated to Siva and Vishnu, are said to be very old, and are frequently resorted to by pilgrims. There is a dolmen near the village. Good corundum stones are found here.

Vellaikkóvil: population 6,359, of whom 6,343 are Hindus. It lies on the Karúr road, 12 miles east from Kángayam, and is a well-to-do village with a good chatram and a police station. There is also a good market here. Four miles north of Vellaikkóvil is the Náttaráyan temple, one of the indigenous shrines frequented not only by ryots, but also by people of all classes and castes for intercessory and sacrificial purposes. There is an old Siva temple in the village itself, with several inscriptions.

Muttúr: population 4,331; 12 miles north-east of Kángayam and 25 miles north-north-east of Dhárápuram; travellers' bungalow and a chatram. There is a very old Siva temple here, which is now in ruins. The temple is said to have been built by Kulóttunga Chóla, and the deity worshipped is named Kulóttungéswara. There is a dolmen a little to the north-east of the village. A weekly market is held on Saturday, at which cattle are brought in for sale.

Padiyúr: 22 miles north of Dhárápuram and 6½ miles north-west of Kángayam; population 1,425; it is celebrated for producing the aqua-marina or beryl. Mr. Walhouse has a paper on the subject in the *Indian Antiquary*, vol. v, p. 237. He gives strong reasons for supposing that the beryl mine here was one of the most powerful links between the east and west in olden times, that the beryl was an article of commerce with Rome, and that the traffic brought Roman money into the district; hence the numerous finds of Roman coin in Coimbatore. Pliny mentions that the best beryls have a peculiar sea-green tint and come mostly from India, being seldom found elsewhere. The only place known to produce the gem is Padiyúr. Corundum is found in a few fields in the village.

Údiyúr: population 3,121. It is 10 miles north of Dhárápuram and contains a police station, a travellers' bungalow and a chatram. There are two old Siva temples, each on a small hill. A weekly market is held here on Sunday.

Kolinjivádi: population 1,437. The village has a large irrigation channel named after it.

Ganapatipálaiyam: population 462; situated 16 miles north-east of Dhárápuram. Corundum is reported to occur in some parts of the village. There is an old Siva temple with inscriptions.

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DHÁRÁPURAM.

Places of interest.

Pazhayakóttai: population 2,821, all of whom are Hindus; distance from Dhárápuram 25 miles, north-north-east. Fine breeds of cattle and ponies are reared here. The pattagár, or the head Vellála of the village, owns several hundreds of these fine animals.

Sangarandámpálaiyam: population 4,997. The village is chiefly remarkable as a cattle and pony breeding centre.

Kannivádi: population 3,865; distance from Dhárápuram 18 miles, east-north-east. It is on the road leading to Karúr and contains a mud fort which is now in ruins.

ERODE TALUK.

ERODE.

General description.

ERODE is a large taluk in the north-east of the district, comprising the old Perundurai and Erode taluks; it is bounded on the north by the Bhaváni river for about 2 miles until it joins the Cauvery at Bhaváni; the Cauvery bounds it on the north-east and east and separates it from the Tiruchengód taluk of the Salem district; on the south it is bounded by the Nóyil river, which separates it from Karúr and Dhárápuram taluks; on the west by Palladam taluk; and on the north-west and north by the Satyamangalam and Bhaváni taluks respectively. The bench mark at the Kálingaráyan head sluice is 534 feet above sea-level, that at the Nóyil 412·48, the distance being 32 miles in a straight line; hence a gradual fall south-east and south of 3·79 feet per mile. The whole taluk also slopes east and south-east towards the Cauvery, into which all streams eventually fall, either direct, as the Koranganpallam, or indirectly by the Nóyil. The area is 598 square miles.

Hills.

The surface of the country is a gently undulating plain, broken, parallel with the Madras Railway, by a slight ridge, the peaks of which are Sennimalai (1,749 feet), Arac'chalúr and Ezhumáttúr; there are also several small isolated hills.

Rivers.

The chief rivers in the taluk are the Bhaváni, Cauvery and Nóyil, besides numerous drainages, such as the Koranganpallam, which crosses the Kálingaráyan and Pugalúr channels near Únjalúr and falls into the Cauvery between the Bhaváni and the Nóyil. The Koranganpallam is notorious for its violent floods; one at the end of 1880 rose 8 feet above the floor of the aqueduct by which it crosses the Pugalúr channel, and so damaged it that the repairs cost Rs. 14,000. The various drainages as elsewhere

in this district are liable to heavy floods owing to the undulating surface, which gathers all surface flow into streamlets and then into torrents.

Soil.

The geology is that of the rest of the district; its soil is everywhere largely calcareous, even the disintegrated gneiss yielding lime which has infiltrated from above. Excellent felspar suitable for potting is obtainable almost everywhere. Iron used to be smelted from the black sands of surface streams, especially near Sennimalai (Buchanan), the stones of which are highly ferric; the price of charcoal is now too high to permit of smelting, and the iron at the markets comes generally from other taluks. Asbestos (*kal-nár*, but not fibrous gypsum also called *kal-nár*) is occasionally found, and is used medicinally. Building stones are good and cheap everywhere; a quarry at Púsárikumárakavundanúr, near Úttukkuli railway station, supplies excellent stone for important railway works. Brick clays are occasionally good, and when care is taken in working, clay from the wet lands makes first-class table bricks, such as those employed for the sub-collector's cutcherry. Potters' clay for the ordinary porous earthenware is procurable from tank-beds, &c.; no good potting materials except quartz and felspar exist.

Soils are all red; there is no black-cotton tract, and the only dark soils are in the beds of tanks, and in wet fields where the red soil has changed colour owing to continuous manuring with vegetable matter. Eighty per cent. of the taluk is red sand, the rest being red loam with 1 per cent. of so-called black soils. Except the fine wet lands under the Kálingaráyan, and garden lands, the taluk is of poor soil; some gardens are of great value and productiveness, especially where a town, as at Erode, gives plenty of manure and a good market. The uplands are very poor as a rule, the best part of the soil having been washed into the bottoms and thence largely to Trichinopoly and Tanjore; pasture lands are rare. Hence the ryots are generally poor and have no large herds of cattle. The unoccupied arable lands are of comparatively small extent; some villages have none.

Forests.

The taluk contains 42½ square miles of Government forests. The reserves are intended to provide small timber and fuel for the agricultural population and fodder for the cattle. The country is everywhere well hedged and tolerably provided with common trees, but is not so well wooded as appears from a view on the level. Palmyras are fairly plentiful.

Fauna.

Fauna are simply the ordinary domesticated animals and very few feræ; an occasional panther descends from Satyamangalam;

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hare, partridge and snipe are pretty plentiful. Ponies are not bred in this taluk, nor are cattle to any extent, pasture lands being of small area.

Flora.

Trees and crops are those of the ordinary dry lands; fruit trees, except palmyras and a few cocoanuts near wells, are rare; even tamarinds are scarce. Chillies, turmeric and tobacco, the last especially in the southern parts of the taluk, grow well in gardens in the cold weather; sunn hemp is grown in the neighbourhood of Tingalúr, where excellent gunny is made.

Climate.

The Erode climate is trying near the Cauvery, the valley of which is very hot and close; the south-west monsoon which, through the Palghat gap, refreshes the district, is heated and fitful in Erode, where periods of calm alternate with dust-storms and gusts of wind. In the west, however, where the country is higher, the climate is cooler and healthier, the tracts about Perundurai and Sengappalli being convenient resorts in April, May, June and September. There is no record of the temperature of this taluk; its winds are those of the rest of the district. Perundurai is the locality most favoured by rain; towards Erode it is somewhat less, while in the west, especially the parts bordering on Palladam, the fall is very scanty.

Communications.

The river Cauvery is somewhat used for traffic from above Bhaváni downwards, passengers and light freight being taken in basket boats when the river is in flood.

Both the Madras and South Indian Railways run through the taluk, the junction being at the town of Erode. Excluding the junction, the former has four stations, Tottipálaiyam, Perundurai, Vijayamangalam or Vóyppádi and Úttukkuli, while the latter also has four, viz., Sávadipálaiyam (hamlet of Modakkurichchi), Pásúr, Únjalúr, and Kodumudi.

The taluk is well provided with roads, which traverse it in all directions; nearly all of them converge at Erode or at Perundurai. The total length of roads is 300 miles, and the most important of them are given below:—

(1) Road from Erode to Karúr, 38 miles. It runs close to the western bank of the Cauvery as far as Kodumudi, and the Erode branch of the South Indian Railway passes very near the road throughout its course. From Kodumudi the divergence is considerable, but the road meets again near Karúr railway station. It passes through the villages of Malayampálaiyam and Únjalúr.

(2) Road from Erode to Perundurai. This runs in a south-westerly direction for about 11 miles.

Communications.

(3) Road from Erode to Bhaváni, northwards, 9 miles.

(4) Road from Erode to Kángayam *viâ* Perundurai and Nóyil, 20 miles. It runs southwards through the taluk, passing through the village of Arac'chalúr.

(5) Road from Erode to Sennimalai *viâ* Kanakapuram, 16 miles.

(6) Road from Erode to Satyamangalam, north-west. Distance within the taluk, 10 miles. It touches the village of Sittódu in its course.

(7) Road from Perundurai to Kodumudi, south-east, 20 miles. It touches the villages of Vadamugam Vellódu, Anumampalli and Kondalam.

(8) Road from Perundurai to Kángayam, south, 12 miles. It passes through Íngúr, Sennimalai and Ekkatámpálaiyam.

(9) Road from Perundurai to Satyamangalam *viâ* Siruvalúr. It runs in a north-westerly direction for about 12 miles, passing through the village of Tingalúr.

(10) Road from Bhaváni to Wálayár *viâ* Avanási, 25 miles. This runs south-west through the taluk and touches the villages of Sittódu, Nasiyanúr, Perundurai, Múngilpálaiyam, Vijayapuri, Sengappalli and Kálippálaiyam.

(11) Road from Perundurai to Kunnattúr, west, 12 miles.

Avenues are poor as everywhere in the district; the Erode-Karúr road is perhaps the best provided. Ferries are tolerably numerous, and are used when the rivers are in flood, viz., from May to the end of December.

Administration.

The taluk lies in the Sub-Collector's division. The chief local revenue officer is the tahsildar (salary Rs. 225). He is also a magistrate, but the bulk of the magisterial work is performed by the stationary sub-magistrate at Erode and the deputy tahsildar and sub-magistrate at Perundurai. The taluk forms two police divisions each under an inspector and is divided into nine police station charges. In respect to civil actions it is situated within the jurisdiction of the district munsif of Erode. The number of villages, including the municipality of Erode, is 210, and all but seven are inhabited. The villages are all Government.

Population.

The population in 1891 was 247,008, of whom 122,274 were males and 124,734 females. Hindus number 242,731, Musalmans 3,384 and Christians 872. The population has increased by 26·24 per cent. since 1881, and there are now 413 persons to the square mile. The number of occupied houses is 56,426, and there are on an average 4·4 inmates to each house. Of the male population 89·97 per cent. are illiterate, 7·99 per cent. can read and write and 2·04 per cent. are learning. Of the females 99·58 per cent. are

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illiterate. Tamil is the mother-tongue of 208,255 persons, Telugu that of 32,135 and Canarese that of 4,114. Classified by means of subsistence the population consists of 131,597 landholders and tenants, 9,903 agricultural labourers, 21,469 general labourers, 28,258 traders, 9,581 weavers, 24,899 other artisans and 21,301 others.

The land.

The area of ryotwári land in the taluk is 354,900 acres and that of minor ináms 28,900 acres. There are neither whole ináms nor zemindáris. Of the ryotwári land 27,900 acres are forest and 35,900 acres are not available for cultivation. Of the remainder 285,100 acres are occupied, and the area available for extension of cultivation is thus 6,000 acres. The area cropped in 1892–93 was 242,800 acres of ryotwári land and 24,000 acres of minor inám, or about 1·08 acres per head of the population. Including the area cropped more than once the extent was 292,100 acres or 1·18 acres to each inhabitant. Cumbu is the principal crop and is grown on nearly 130,000 acres. The area under cholum and ragi is 39,000 and 13,000 acres respectively. Rice is cultivated only to a small extent, the area under it being 16,700 acres. There are 68,100 acres under cotton, 6,500 acres under oil-seeds, 7,100 acres under horse-gram and about 400 acres under tobacco. Sugar-cane and plantains are not extensively grown. Turmeric, yams, and sweet-potatoes are grown in garden lands, especially near Erode. The only fruits grown are tamarinds, plantains, pomegranates, especially near the railway, cocoanuts on wet lands in topes and in gardens in rows along the water-courses; mangoes are very rare. Sugar-cane is only grown on 150 or 160 acres. Palmyras are plentiful and yield toddy, jaggery, sugar, and nuts in large quantities. There are also a few pumplemoses, oranges and limes. The jujube (*Zizyphus jujuba*, Ilandai) is plentiful near Kunnattúr; there are very few other wild fruits except the prickly-pear, which grows in masses.

The cultivation under tanks varies considerably; under some tanks, *e.g.*, Dalavóypálaiyam, the ryots do not grow crops unless there is a full supply; in others, *e.g.*, Puttúrpallapálaiyam, which have not filled for years, the ryots have dug wells and cultivate crops, such as sugar-cane the whole year round. The reason is that if a tank is usually well supplied the ryots will grow nothing but paddy, and if the year is not fully prosperous they grow nothing rather than dry crops; when it is seldom supplied, wells are dug, and then are worked all the year round. Garden crops are usually two, the sowings being ordinarily in June-July and October-November, the former being ragi or cumbu, and the latter cholum, tobacco, &c. A crop of cholum is also often grown in the hot weather.

The land.

Crops and seasons are tabulated below :—

Crops.	Sowing time.	Reaping time.
	Dry.	
Cumbu	July-August	October-November.
ámai	Do.	Do.
Cholum	Do.	Do.
Ragi	Do.	Do.
Gingelly	April-May	August-September.
Cotton	June-July	Next year, October.
Gram	September-October ...	January-February.
	Garden.	
Cumbu	May-June	August-September.
Cholum	November-December ...	March-April.
Ragi	May-June-July	September-October.
Turmeric	June-July	February-March.
Sweet-potato	September-October ...	Do.
Gingelly	April-May	August-September.
Tobacco	November-December ...	May-June.
Chillies	July-August	November to April.
	Wet.	
Annadánam	June-July	October-November.
Vellai-kuruvai	September-October ...	December-January.
Mulagi	July-August	January-February.
Kártigai samba ...	November-December ...	April-May.
Turmeric	June-July	February-March.
Plantain	Do.	Next year.

The dry crops of Erode are usually poor; the taluk has always been widely cultivated, so that the land has had no rest; rainfall is variable and partial, cattle are not abundant, and population is large, so that the surface soil (and there is but scanty soil on the uplands) is exhausted for want of sufficient manure, most of which goes to the gardens; cumbu is generally poor, cholum seldom otherwise; the cotton outturn is wretched in quantity and quality. No greater contrast, save between garden and ordinary dry crops, can be seen than between the ordinary upland crops, especially in a year of poor rainfall, and the very same species of crop on a piece of newly-reclaimed or well-manured land. In fasli 1291, a year of drought, there was an opportunity of making the contrast, the well-manured dry land in the most prominent case belonging to a Pariah and having an excellent cholum crop, while surrounding fields had practically *nil.* The ryots are perfectly aware of the reason, and allege want of capital and pasture.

For pasture the ryots depend upon the public lands and the grazing of their fallow and cotton lands; a field sown with grass for pasture is rare in this taluk, chiefly owing to the large population, which, in a community where flesh eating is not very common, necessitates a large area tilled for grain. For this reason cattle are

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not much bred for sale. There is a fair amount of pasture from the above sources for half to three-fourths of an ordinary year according to the rainfall; the clippings of trees and hedges and the weeds from the fields aid at least the sheep and goats, while the cholum, ragi, and paddy straw usually suffice for the cattle.

Of the total area of ryotwári holdings in fasli 1302 the dry lands comprised 275,600 acres and the wet or irrigated lands 8,900 acres. The average assessment per acre in fasli 1302 was Rs. 1-1-4 for dry and Rs. 11-14-4 for wet, or Rs. 1-6-9 for all lands taken together. There were in that year 9,081 single and 21,064 joint pattás, and 5,831 of the former and 11,070 of the latter were for sums below Rs. 10. The normal land revenue of the taluk is Rs. 4,05,700 and the cesses charged on land revenue amount to Rs. 56,300.

Irrigation.

Irrigation is (1) direct from channels, (2) from tanks fed by channels, (3) from tanks supplied by rain-fed surface or jungle streams.

Under the first class are the Kálingaráyan and Pugalúr channels; the latter, which has its head near Únjalúr, irrigates Karúr taluk, only a few acres in Erode being supplied by baling on its right bank. The Kálingaráyan runs entirely in the Erode taluk at present, though it used to run on into Karúr across the Nóyil by an aqueduct and into the Amarávati near Karúr (Buchanan and local traditions); traces of it are still to be met, and a project is now in hand for its restoration. For a large part of the year there is a considerable surplus into the Nóyil, benefiting the Pugalúr channel, which should have an abundant supply of its own; a regulation of the Kálingaráyan sluices, which are no less than 1,840 in number, would give a large supply at the present tail. As it is, the various large drainages from the fields are often torrents, and there are scores of smaller drainages. In 1800 the channel was in poor repair, and, owing to war, over-assessment, and paucity of population and capital, cultivation extended no further than Kolánalli, the total area irrigated being only about 3,500 acres (Buchanan). The left bank is artificial up to the tail, the other natural. Its head is near Bhaváni at Anainásuvanpálaiyam anicut near the Bhaváni bridge, and just above the junction of the Bhaváni and Cauvery. It is closed from about the 1st April to 1st July for clearance and repairs. The head sluice has six vents with a total sectional area of 157 square feet; the vents are closed by screw-shutters. The depth of water in front of the vents is 12·19 feet when the river is full, and about 11·89 feet on the rear floor. When flowing full, the channel head being clear of silt, the actual depth at the road bridge 200 yards

below the head sluice is 5 feet; the width of the channel at the sluice is 55 feet, its sectional area being 420·87 square feet; at the aqueduct at the fourteenth mile, which is 40 feet wide with perpendicular walls and flat bed, the maximum depth is 2·40 feet; many right bank lands above Pílamédu are not irrigable by direct flow till the channel measures at least 1·80 feet at the aqueduct. It is estimated that 38·96 cubic yards per second pass into the channel when flowing full, a quantity sufficient, according to Public Works Department calculation, to irrigate 46,752 acres instead of 8,842 acres (including inám lands) as at present. The total length of the channel is 62 miles and the total fall about 122 feet, giving an average fall of 2 feet per mile. It has seven sand sluices, viz., at the 1st, 2nd, 3rd, 6th, 9th, and 16th miles.

Escapes for jungle streams are nine in number, at the 3rd, 9th, 15th, 25th, 34th, 36th, 39th, 41st, and 47th miles. A new sand sluice, the sill of which is 2 feet below the sill of the head sluice, was recently built at a cost of Rs. 7,547, just in front of the head sluice; this prevents to a certain extent the accumulation of silt, which, especially after heavy freshes, was for a long time a source of much annoyance and expense.

In 1882 silt accumulated to such a degree that the channel only ran three-fourths full below the first sand sluice when the apparent depth at the head sluice was 6 inches above high water level. It is crossed by 42 natural drainages. These drainages are sources of great trouble and danger, owing to the suddenness and violence of floods and the quantity of sand brought down by them. The sluices are 1,840 in number. It will be seen that there are about 31 sluices per mile on an average, an absurdly large number, and that the average area per sluice is only 4⅘ acres. Of these only 690 are masonry, the rest being either rough stone culverts, palmyra troughs, or open cuts; the two former may be seen from the very head of the channel, and are sources of much danger and waste. The orifices of the sluices are usually large, so that the channel is seriously drained long before it reaches even Pásúr. The evils of this are discussed in chapter x. The left bank is occasionally planted, chiefly with palmyras, but much more might be done after the fashion of Tanjore banks. The right bank is bordered by fine trees in parts, but the land is generally used for gardens irrigated by baling. The right bank is not however fully utilized either for trees or gardens, except near Erode and neighbouring villages. The channel being fed by the Bhaváni, is at its fullest from June till September; it is apt to be slightly lower in that month, but again runs full to the end of January, from which time it gradually decreases till the end of March. In February and March the

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tahsildar has continually to be on the alert to see that each village gets its due supply in turn, and that the upper villages do not get all the water. No fixed rule can be laid down as to turns, as they depend on the state of the channel. The first crop, consisting usually of kuruvai or annadánam paddy, is sown in July, the previous month being occupied in watering, ploughing, and manuring the lands and in growing the seedlings. This crop is reaped in October, and the second crop at once transplanted from nurseries; this is usually samba paddy and is cut in February, March and April. There is no double-crop land in the first and last three miles.

In the second class there is only one tank, Vadugapálaiyam, 3 miles south of Úttukkuli railway station on the Kángayam road; it is a small tank with an áyakat of 125 acres and is fed by an anicut and short channel from the Nóyil; it is also rainfed, and is seldom entirely dry. It is usually cultivated with a first crop of ragi or arisi cumbu and a second of paddy.

The third class comprises tanks of which the names and áyakat are given below :—

Tanks.	Áyakat.	Tanks.	Áyakat.
	ACRES.		ACRES.
Tenmugam Vellódu, large.	71	Sundakkápálaiyam ...	90
Vadamugam Vellódu, small	57	Vellaraivelli	26
Nanjai Pálattoluvu ...	194	Kávuttampálaiyam ...	31
Dalavóypálaiyam ...	28	Kunnattúr	69
Sirkár Periyapálaiyam ...	108	Punjai Pálattoluvu ...	11
Puttúr-Pallapálaiyam ...	75	Morattuppálaiyam ...	3
Vadamugam Kángayampálaiyam	35	Agrahára Periyapálaiyam.	96
		TOTAL ...	894

The nominally irrigable area has been diminished by the settlement to suit actuals. The two Pálattoluvu tanks are fed by the Nallár, a large jungle tributary of the Nóyil. The drainage of the country from Kunnattúr south to the Nóyil is partly intercepted by several tanks. For many years these tanks, notably Kunnattúr and Puttúr-Pallapálaiyam, have not properly filled even in years of good rain.

In addition to the above sources there are 11,138 wells in the taluk which are used for the purpose of irrigation. The total area irrigated in 1892–93 was 45,300 acres, but if the extent irrigated more than once be included again, the area irrigated comes to about 69,000 acres.

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ERODE.

Agricultural stock.

The agricultural stock in the taluk is shown in the marginal table. Interpreting ploughing cattle to mean bulls, bullocks and male buffaloes, there is one pair to every 18·44 acres in occupation, the district average being one pair to every 15·59 acres; there are 19 cows and cow buffaloes to every 100 inhabitants against a district average of 23; and there are 63 sheep and goats to each hundred acres in occupation, the corresponding average for the district as a whole being 51.

Bulls and bullocks	33,308
Cows	41,455
Male buffaloes	749
Cow buffaloes	5,705
Young stock	33,946
Sheep	123,102
Goats	73,860
Ploughs	26,450
Carts	2,985

Industries.

The chief industries besides agriculture are cart building, stone quarrying, well digging, pottery and brick making, a little iron smelting, weaving, chunam (lime) burning, and saltpetre making; there are also the ordinary carpenters and workers in iron, brass, and the precious metals. Jaggery is manufactured in the Perundurai division. Cart building is active in Erode town; it is also found occasionally elsewhere. Stone is quarried in many places, chiefly by Oddas; that for the Cauvery bridge was found near Úttukkuli railway station and is of good quality. Common grindstones of gneiss are cut in the Cauvery bed and in many other places. The Oddas are the only well-diggers. Iron smelting is now rare; in 1800 it was more common in this taluk on a small scale (Buchanan). It is carried on entirely by Pariahs, Chucklers, and Shánáns in the non-toddy season. Native charcoal iron is almost exclusively used for tools by the ryots and artisans and is bought in considerable quantities at the various markets, especially Kunnattúr, to which it comes from Bhaváni and Satyamangalam. Ordinary potters and brickmakers are everywhere found. Weavers are tolerably numerous (9,581 by census), but are poorly off; only country coarse cloths are woven and the manufacture is on the decline. The saltpetre industry was once considerable, there being a large factory of Messrs. Fischer and Company at Erode; it has now almost died out from slackness of demand and from the excise restrictions; saltpetre is not now to be obtained at Erode, but only at Kodumudi.

Trade.

Bazaars are found in about 30 villages. The ryots depend upon the numerous weekly markets for their supplies, and for exchanging goods. The chief centres of trade are the markets; at these produce is bought by merchants and brokers from, and salt, cloths, iron and steel, metal vessels and miscellaneous goods sold to, the ryots. A good deal of produce also changes hands between ryots either by sale or barter; *e.g.*, tobacco is bartered against cotton, and so forth. A large trade is done in country leather, a corner of

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the large markets such as Perundurai being almost always odorous with country-tanned hides. The produce thus bought is sometimes taken direct to the railway station or to other markets, or is brought to the godowns of the wealthier merchants, as at Erode; this town is occasionally, *e.g.*, in February, pungent with chillies, which are brought in immense quantities. The trade in raw produce, salt and cloths is, of course, the most important. The oil and hide trades have no special centres, but cotton is largely brought into Erode, hand-cleaned in hundreds of houses in that and neighbouring villages, and usually pressed at Messrs. Binny's press at Erode. No means exist of estimating the road traffic, but the toll farm of Erode Municipality, which, at two annas per loaded cart, has averaged only Rs. 2,487 for the last five years, seems to show that there is not a very large cart traffic even to the chief town and railway station. But the town carts as licensed are about 500 in number, and as these do a great deal of local traffic, their work must be added to that arrived at from the tolls. It is not uncommon to see over 100 carts at the large markets, and carts are not rare upon the roads.

Products beyond those mentioned already are not important, except the bark of the white acacia used in distilling, and that of the *Cassia auriculata* (áváram) largely used for tanning.

Places of interest.

Erode, on the north-east border of the district, close to the Cauvery where the Madras Railway crosses it, is a municipal town of considerable importance in the taluk. It is the head-quarters of the Sub-Collector, the Assistant Superintendent of Police and the Public Works Department sub-divisional officer, as well as of the tahsildar, and has a police station, a hospital, a sub-registrar's office, a high school maintained from municipal funds and a post and telegraph office. It was also at one time the head-quarters of the Deputy Collector in charge of the Southern Division comprising the present taluks of Bhaváni and Erode. There is a junction of the Madras and South Indian Railway lines here, and the town contains four chatrams. In Hyder's time it was very flourishing and is said (Buchanan) to have had 3,000 houses, equal to a population of 15,000 souls; but in consequence of successive Mahrátta, Mysore and British invasions, the town became almost utterly deserted and ruined. As soon, however, as peace was signed, the people returned to a place with so many advantages in position and fertility; and within a year it had 400 houses, and a population of over 2,000. The garrison was withdrawn in 1807, and the ruined fort levelled as a relief work during the famine of 1877. The space enclosed within the ramparts had been long before occupied by houses, with a cotton-press and saltpetre warehouse.

The cotton-press, which is owned by Messrs. Binny and Company, is doing good work, while the saltpetre industry has almost died out for lack of funds. The town has now 1,950 houses with 12,330 people, of whom 10,481 are Hindus, 1,393 Musalmans and 453 Christians. It has a flourishing trade, chiefly in raw produce, salt, cloths and cotton. About a mile and-a-half east of the town a girder bridge of 22 arches crosses the Cauvery, 1,536 feet in length, constructed at a cost of Rs. 4,09,000. The town is well-built, and besides the public offices already mentioned has a good court-house and sub-jail, erected at a cost of Rs. 30,000. There are two old temples here, one dedicated to Siva and the other to Vishnu. Both of these contain many inscriptions in old Tamil and Grandha characters. A Catechist of the London Mission Society is stationed here, and there is a chapel near the railway station. The Roman Catholic Mission has a church with a considerable congregation.

Erode is said to be derived from *Íram* (Tamil), wet and *ódu* (Tamil), skull and means literally, the wet skull. The presiding deity of the Siva temple in the town is called *Árdra Kapáléswarar*, or Íswara with the wet skull, and is represented with a skull in one hand. This skull is said to be that of Bráhma and the following legend is related in connection with it. A Vaishnava sage named Daksha-Prajápati gave his daughter (Dákshâyani) in marriage to Siva. Daksha-Prajápati performed a *yágam* or sacrifice to which he invited all the gods; he did not, however, extend his courtesy to his son-in-law. Siva was provoked at this insult and when Dákshâyani expressed a desire to go to her father's residence for the purpose of witnessing the sacrifice, he advised her not to go, but on her persistently entreating him, he gave her permission. Dákshâyani proceeded to her father's mansion, but neither he nor his wife nor any of his attendants offered her welcome. She was sorely vexed and threw herself in the midst of flames and was burnt to ashes. On learning this, Siva got highly enraged and swore he would not rest until he had punished the wicked Daksha-Prajápati and the various minor gods who attended the *yágam*. With this determination Siva proceeded to the sacrificial spot, and punished every one who was present at the sacrifice. It is said that among others Brahma was present for receiving the usual *Avir bhágam* or burnt offerings, and that Siva in his rage tore off one of the five heads of Brahma, and returned home with the skull. Such is the story now told: it is probably a Bráhmanised form of an old Dravidian legend.

About a mile from the town is a celebrated well called the Péc'chippárai well; its water is milky and is said to be very wholesome.

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ERODE.
Places of interest.

Perundurai: 11 miles south-west of Erode; population 6,404, of whom 1,077 are traders; head-quarters of the deputy tahsildar; post office; police station; sub-registrar's office; railway station; travellers' bungalow; chatram. It was once the head-quarters of the taluk, and contains an old Siva temple. The village enjoys a good climate. A weekly market is held on Tuesday.

Kodumudi, 21 miles south-south-east of Erode, is situated on the banks of the Cauvery; it is a thriving wet village, with a market much frequented by grain merchants. It has a police station, a local fund hospital, a sub-registrar's office, a post office, a railway station, and a chatram. According to the census of 1891 there were 4,020 inhabitants, of whom 940 are traders. There is an ancient Siva temple, well sculptured. It is one of the seven Kongu Siválayams. A market is held here once a week on Monday.

Kolánalli: a small village, about 16 miles east of Erode, on the Erode-Karúr road. There is a small modern temple of Kottai Máriamman in the village, which is now in great repute amongst the ryots of this and the neighbouring taluks; great numbers of fowls are sacrificed every Tuesday, and at the annual festival on the full moon of Mási, thousands of sheep and several hundreds of buffalo calves (male), besides innumerable fowls, are sacrified by ryots to bring good luck in the coming year, or in satisfaction of vows made in the past year. The fame of the temple is due to an alleged miracle upon the person of a blind man, to whom the goddess is said to have appeared and restored sight a few years ago.

Kunnattúr: 12 miles north-west of Perundurai; population 981, of whom 966 are Hindus; police station. It has one of the largest markets in the district. The weekly market days are Monday and Tuesday.

Sennimalai, 8 miles south of Perundurai (population 2,656) is a considerable hill surmounted by a temple reached by a long flight of steps and at the foot of it is a neat village with a market and a police station. The temple is dedicated to Subrahmanya and is largely resorted to by Vellálas. A car festival is celebrated annually in the month of Tai (January-February).

Arac'chalúr, 12 miles south of Erode, is a large village of 6,707 inhabitants, scattered, however, in 38 hamlets over 23 square miles.

Nallampatti, 6 miles north-north-west of Perundurai, is a village with 1,679 inhabitants. Close to it is a great group of dolmens and stone circles. Good cotton sheeting is manufactured here.

Kanakapuram: population 1,488; distance from Erode 7 miles, south-south-west. There is a beautiful cave in a rock

adjoining the village, and there are three Siva temples. A large weekly market is held here on Sunday.

Places of interest.

Únjalúr: population 4,399, of whom 4,328 are Hindus and 71 Musalmans; as many as 1,044 are traders; railway station; chatram for Bráhman travellers; distance from Erode 17½ miles, south-east; height above sea-level 446 feet. There is an old Siva temple with numerous inscriptions. A weekly market is held on Tuesday.

Ezhumáttúr: population 4,662, of whom 4,649 are Hindus and 13 Musalmans; police station; distance from Erode 11½ miles, south-south-east. There are two temples on a rock, one of which is dedicated to Siva and the other to Vishnu. A weekly market is held here on Monday.

Kánjikkóvil: population 5,417, of whom 5,347 are Hindus and 70 Christians; distance from Erode 9 miles, north-north-west. There are five Siva temples in the village, and the annual festivals, celebrated in honour of the gods, are well attended. Corundum is found in a field in the village. The London Mission have a branch station here under a Catechist and there is a neat little chapel belonging to the mission.

Vellódu.

Tingalúr: population 2,122.

Vijayamangalam.

Púndurai.

Kongampálaiyam.

There are small Jain temples at each of the above five villages; they have small land endowments allotted for the use of the priest.

"The plan of the Jain Basti pagoda at Vijayamangalam is "similar in some respects to those of the Hindus. A column rises "through the roof, a choultry faces the principal gateway, which "is surmounted by the usual propylon or tower of several storeys. "In the middle of the courtyard, encompassed by four walls, stands "the body of the pagoda consisting of an oblong stone building "with a flat roof. The entablatures of the exterior are ornamented "with figures of Ádi Íswara, the very image of Buddha, and seated "like him cross-legged, in some places holding a bell in one hand, "and in others seated under the shade of an umbrella. There are "also figures of the god canopied by the elevated trunks of two "elephants, one on each side of him, men on elephants, miniature "pagodas, men playing on various musical instruments, men riding "on lions and other animals, figures with a horse-tail panka fanning "a cross-legged image of Ádi Íswara, figures in gothic niches. All "these indicate the close connection of Jainism with Buddhism.

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"Inside the pagoda the case is altered and there are manifestations "of Hinduism in effigies of Krishna treading on the snake, of "Ganésa, the five Pándavas, Hanumán and other mythological "beings; these occur chiefly on a cornice running round the top of "the wall. Outside the pagoda is a deep well traditionally reputed "to be the work of Bhíma, one of the Pándavas, who, wanting "water, struck the ground with his club and formed the well."[1] There is a fine travellers' bungalow as well as a chatram in the village.

Mudavándi Satyamangalam: population 12,155. It was originally an inám village granted by the Hindu kings, and subsequently confirmed by Tippoo, for the support of 32 cripples (*mudavándis*) of the Vellála or agricultural caste in Erode and the adjacent taluks. The whole village was at first allotted to the institution upon a rent of half the Government assessment; but on the district coming into the possession of the British, the village was resumed and the endowment was subsequently commuted for a grant of land to the value of half the revenues of the village or Rs. 1,193–14–5 per annum, the proceeds to be enjoyed in shares by the 32 *mudavándis* or cripples and 42 *káládis* or able-bodied men who were in attendance on them. In course of time the original objects of the charity were neglected, and the proceeds of the inám lands were therefore devoted to the maintenance of a *langarkhána* or alms-house at Coimbatore, *mudavándis* or lame persons having the preference among claimants for relief. Considering the trouble and expense the Municipal Council of Coimbatore were put to in collecting the assessment through private agency, the inám lands were resumed by Government in 1887 and an annual grant of Rs. 1,000 in lieu thereof was ordered to be paid to the municipality.

Morattuppálaiyam: population 1,551, of whom 458 are weavers. Good cotton checks are manufactured here.

KARÚR TALUK.

KARÚR.
General description.

KARÚR is the south-eastern taluk of the district, and is bounded on the north by the Erode taluk and by the Cauvery river, on the west by Dhárápuram, on the south by the Madura and Trichinopoly districts, and on the east by the Cauvery and the Kulittalai taluk of Trichinopoly. The total area is 612 square miles.

[1] *Madras Journal of Literature and Science*, 1878, p. 152.

Hills.

The taluk is an open undulating plain with no hills and only a few rocky extrusions of insignificant size. It is of the regular Coimbatore type, the bulk of it being poor uplands with fertile bottoms and good wet lands along the borders of the river.

Rivers.

The taluk shares in the three rivers Cauvery, Amarávati and Nóyil; the Cauvery, which is its eastern boundary, feeds three good channels; the Amarávati traverses it from the south-west, and debouches into the Cauvery at the eastern extremity of the taluk, supplying nine channels within the taluk limits; the Nóyil is its northern boundary, but is useless to it for irrigation, except by the Pugalúr channel, which crosses the Nóyil by an anicut just above its junction with the Cauvery. The Cauvery is not embanked in this taluk below Vángal, and as the surface of the country is little above its ordinary full level, floods cause considerable damage by the sand which they deposit on the wet lands fed by the Nerúr channel. The banks of the Amarávati in this taluk are fortunately low, so that there is no difficulty in irrigating the lands bordering the river by anicuts and korambus, which are temporary dams of sand and brushwood in the bed of the river. The banks of the Nóyil are high and steep, while its floods are very intermittent, so that it cannot be utilized by anicuts or korambus, and even baling is little resorted to. There are no considerable jungle streams except the Kudaganár and Nangánji, which, running from the south, fall into the Amarávati above Karúr town.

Soil.

The soils are of the usual gneissose and quartzose character, with beds of limestone, nodular or agglomerated; towards the south, near Velliyanai, Aravakkuric'chi, &c., the surface is little but hard kankar, which, however, produces fair crops. White quartz crops up in many places, especially on the road from Pugalúr to Karúr; a dark grey gneiss (karungal) of superior quality is quarried about 3 miles south-west of Karúr and is in considerable demand for temples and public works even in other districts, which are supplied by rail with pillars, slabs, and square paving stones both cheap and indestructible.

Soils are either red or grey, the former being ferruginous and the latter calcareous; there is no black soil; 7 per cent. of the dry land is classed as red loam and 93 per cent. as red sand; in wet lands about 98 per cent. is red loam and 2 per cent. red sand. The soil of the dry lands is generally inferior, but, owing to a rainfall usually more regular and abundant, the crops are not inferior to those of Erode, Bhaváni, Palladam, and Coimbatore.

Forests.

There are 12 forest reserves in the taluk, with an aggregate extent of 4·93 square miles. The largest of them is Vandalmalai

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which has an area of 2·67 square miles. Most of the reserves are mere grass lands, with a few fuel trees scattered about.

Fauna.

Feræ are in no way noteworthy. Wild animals, save jackals, are absolutely extinct; a venturous leopard (some say tiger) which found its way to some rocks near Karúr in 1854 was pluckily killed by the then tahsildar, M.R.Ry. Biligiri Rao (Bráhman), who, with sword and dagger, personally attacked it in its lair and slew it, receiving honorable wounds in the conflict. Small game is practically *nil*, save snipe, quail, partridge and a few hares. Domestic breeds are of ordinary value.

The taluk is poorly wooded; fruit trees, even palmyras, are especially scarce, and even most favourable positions, such as channel banks, deep spots near water, &c., are not utilized; there is one private fuel jungle near Karúr, but this is left to nature and not assisted by plantation; being rich low land near channels and wet fields, it produces babul trees and grass abundantly.

Flora.

Buchanan in 1800 remarked on the treeless character of the country south of the Nóyil; it still has that character to some extent, but is evidently better than it then was after being devastated for fifty years by the incessant ravages of advancing and retreating troops. As the border taluk between Trichinopoly and the then Mysore territory, Karúr was the scene of incessant military movements which go far to account for its then treelessness. A great deal of planting both of hedges and trees is still needed; fuel is dear, palmyras scarce, and building timber is brought from Palghat at great expense; fruit trees are almost entirely absent. Other trees are of the ordinary Coimbatore kind.

Climate.

The climate is less oppressive than Erode, though very hot from March to June, after which time it is tempered by the south-west winds, and, at Karúr itself, by the irrigation of the surrounding lands.

Communications.

The South Indian Railway traverses the north-eastern border of the taluk from the Nóyil to the Amarávati at Karúr; a fine girder bridge of twenty-one arches crosses the latter river. There are stations at Puliyúr, Karúr and Pugalúr.

The telegraph is that of the railway and is open to the public at all the three stations. Post offices are at Karúr, Aravakkuric'chi, Nerúr, Pallapatti, Pugalúr and Vángal.

Roads are numerous and fairly good. There are also numerous village lanes, some passable by carts. The total length of roads in the taluk is 225 miles. The most important of them are—

(1) Road from Karúr to Méttuppálaiyam *viá* Paramatti. It runs westward through the taluk for a distance of 21 miles.

Communications.

(2) Road from Karúr to Erode; length within the taluk 13 miles. It runs in a north-westerly direction and passes near the villages of Áttúr, Punnam and Véttaimangalam.

(3) The Karúr-Udamalpet road, which runs south-west for 16 miles within the limits of the taluk. It touches the villages of Pallapálaiyam, Tumbivádi, Súdámani and Sinnadhárápuram.

(4) Road from Karúr to Pallapatti *viâ* Aravakkuric'chi, 22 miles. It runs south-south-west, and passes through Tirumánilaiyúr and Nágampalli.

(5) Road from Karúr to Pugalúr, 11 miles. This runs in a northerly direction.

(6) Road from Karúr to Trichinopoly, east, 6 miles. This runs close to the line of the South Indian Railway.

(7) Road from Karúr to Dindigul, 12 miles. It runs in a southerly direction, and passes through the villages of Tándóni and Velliyanai.

There are also roads from Karúr to Nerúr and from Karúr to Vángal, which lie on the eastern border of the taluk. The length of these roads is 6 and 7 miles respectively.

Administration.

The taluk lies in the Sub-Collector's division. The chief local revenue officer is the tahsildar (salary Rs. 175). He is also a magistrate, but the bulk of the magisterial work is performed by the stationary sub-magistrate at Karúr and the deputy tahsildar and sub-magistrate at Aravakkuric'chi. The taluk forms a single police division under an inspector and is divided into six police station charges. In respect to civil actions it is situated within the jurisdiction of the district munsif of Karúr. The number of villages, including the municipality of Karúr, is 97, and all but one are inhabited. Of the total number 85 are Government villages, 4 are shrotriem or inám and 8 are zemin.

Population.

The population in 1891 was 211,794, of whom 102,568 were males and 109,226 females. The population of the Government villages is 198,029. Hindus number 201,179, Musalmans 9,576 and Christians 1,039. The population has increased by 19·55 per cent. since 1881, and there are now 346 persons to the square mile. The number of occupied houses is 47,432, and there are on an average 4·5 inmates to each house. Of the male population 88·46 per cent. are illiterate, 9·33 per cent. can read and write and 2·21 per cent. are learning. Of the females 99·46 per cent. are illiterate. Tamil is the mother-tongue of 169,570 persons, Telugu that of 32,992 and Canarese that of 7,544. Classified by means of subsistence the population consists of 105,242 landholders and tenants, 25,180 agricultural labourers, 13,351 general labourers, 19,919

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traders, 8,874 weavers, 21,035 other artisans and 18,193 persons of various other professions.

The land.

The area of ryotwári land in the taluk is 313,100 acres; that of minor ináms is 45,700 acres, that of whole ináms 9,100 acres and that of zemindáris 23,700 acres. Of the ryotwári land 3,200 acres are forest and 38,700 acres are unfit for cultivation. Of the remainder 267,300 acres are in occupation, and the area available for extension of cultivation is thus only 3,900 acres. All the inám lands are, of course, occupied. Statistics of zemindári cultivation are not available. The area cropped in 1892–93 was 187,200 acres of ryotwári land and 30,500 acres of minor inám, or about 1·10 acres per head of the population of Government villages. Including the area cropped more than once the total extent was 233,300 acres which gives 1·18 acres to each inhabitant. Cumbu and cholum are the principal crops and are grown on 96,300 and 72,700 acres respectively. The only other dry grain of importance is ragi, the acreage under it being 10,600 acres. The area cultivated with rice is 11,900 acres. There are 15,500 acres under cotton, 14,800 acres under oil-seeds and about 3,000 acres under tobacco. The crops and their seasons are tabulated below :—

Crops.	Sowing time.	Reaping time.
	Wet land.	
Samba paddy	September and October...	February and March.
Kuruvai paddy	July and August ...	November and December.
Ragi	Do.	October.
Turmeric	July	April.
Sugar-cane	June-July	June.
Ground-nut	July and August ...	February and March.
Betel-leaf	February	October.
Gingelly	April	August.
Plantain	December	February (14 months).
	Garden land.	
Paddy	October and November...	March.
Ragi	June and July	September and October.
Cholum	March	June.
Chillies	August and September...	December and January.
Tobacco	October	April.
Sweet-potato	Do.	March and April.
	Dry land.	
Cumbu and pulses ...	July and August... ...	November and December.
Cholum	June	November.
Tinai	September	January.
Sámai	August	December.
Tuvarai	June	February.
Gingelly	August and September ..	December and January.
Horse-gram	September and October...	March and April.
Cotton	July-August	April and May.

The land.

The crops are pretty good as a rule; the rainfall is more regular than in the Erode taluk and more plentiful than in Dhárápuram. The seasons are the same as in Erode, but gingelly and cholum are extensively cultivated, especially on the east of the taluk, in the south-west monsoon, ripening in October-November. In garden lands paddy is very generally grown as a cold-weather crop, and less often tobacco. On wet lands it is customary to grow either ragi or three months' paddy with the south-west monsoon freshes, followed by samba, Kártigai samba, or kuruvai, according to season and the position of the channel and lands. Turmeric is only grown on high nanjai lands, seldom on gardens, except occasionally where channel baling is available. Betel is largely cultivated in Kóyampalli and Nerúr near Karúr; plantains are most grown under Cauvery irrigation; those of Pugalúr, extending over about 700 acres in Pugalúr village alone, are celebrated, and are largely sent to Madras and other places by rail.

Pastures are fairly abundant, and some are regularly sown and preserved, the usual grass being the indigenous kóraikkattu. The rate per head varies from 2 to 4 annas per month for cattle according to the richness of the pasture, and 4 to 8 annas for buffaloes, which are considered to eat and damage more than cattle.

Of the total area of ryotwári holdings in fasli 1302 the dry lands comprised 252,600 acres and the wet or irrigated lands 14,300 acres. The average assessment per acre in fasli 1302 was As. 11–7 for dry and Rs. 6–11–4 for wet, or Rs. 1–0–8 for all lands taken together. There were in that year 8,201 single and 11,621 joint pattás, and 5,240 of the former and 6,761 of the latter were for sums below Rs. 10. The normal land revenue of the taluk is Rs. 2,93,000 and the cesses charged on land revenue amount to Rs. 41,300.

Irrigation.

Irrigation is confined, save in the case of three tanks, to channels from the Cauvery and Amarávati. The following table gives information; inám areas are included:—

Source of irrigation.	Áyakat.	Source of irrigation.	Áyakat.
	ACRES.		ACRES.
Sinna Dhárápuram channel.	1,900	Vángal channel	1,053
Pallapálaiyam do. ...	3,571	Nerúr do.	1,781
Bálámbápuram do. ...	752	Velliyanai tank ...	372
Tirumánilaiyúr do. ...	864	Uppidamangalam do. ...	454
Kóyampalli do. ...	914	Jagadápi do. ...	45
Puliyúr do. ...	1,287	Aravakkuric'chi jungle stream (Nangánji) ...	139
Nanjai Kálakkuric'chi do. ...	307		
Sanappiratti do. ...	555		
Panchamádévi do. ...	273		
Nanjai Pugalúr do. ...	2,029	TOTAL ...	16,296

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KARÚR.

Irrigation.

The Cauvery irrigation is superior to most of the Amarávati irrigation, which however is fairly good, except at the tail of one or two of the lowest channels, which are somewhat uncertain. But many of the lands even in these villages are of the highest value, notably Sanappiratti, where betel and such crops are largely grown. The tails of the Pallapálaiyam and Panchamádévi channels are sometimes short of water, which has probably led, especially in the former, to the extensive cultivation of ground-nut. As usual, built sluices are the exception, and there is great waste of water even in the worst supplied channels.

The channels are apt to fall very low in September and after December. There is a good deal of baling in this taluk; nanjai (wet) lands fed from a drainage channel are occasionally supplied by baling from a low-level channel (*e.g.*, Karúr channel lands from Andánkóvil channel); other lands are classed as baling nanjai, as in the Cauvery channels, and many dry lands are irrigated as gardens by baling from channels (*e.g.*, Pallapálaiyam, &c.). Baling from rivers is almost impossible; from the Cauvery and Amarávati because of their broad padugai,[3] from the Nóyil because of its very intermittent supply and high banks, and because the people along its banks are not so enterprising as near towns and large villages. The channel and river banks might be planted with advantage; ryots here, as elsewhere, would plant channel banks on a cowle or special planting lease.

There are two considerable rain-fed tanks, viz., Uppidamangalam and Velliyanai, irrigating 454 and 372 acres respectively. The supply is precarious, a rice crop every second year being about the average, the tanks often receiving a *nil* or very poor supply in alternate years. But the wet lands are usually supplied with wells, which always give a crop of ragi, and, when the tanks fill, ragi is usually the first and rice the second crop. Special products are not raised under these tanks, and the ryots give no good reason for the neglect, except that they prefer food crops which also give straw for their cattle.

The Tádampálaiyam tank, which breached a few years ago, has been repaired, and it now supplements the Pallapálaiyam channel in deficient months; its large gathering ground favours this. There are also 8,564 wells which are used for the purpose of irrigation. The total area irrigated in 1892-93 was 43,400 acres, but if the area irrigated more than once be included again, the total extent comes to about 53,700 acres.

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[3] Land in the bed or on the banks of rivers.

Agricultural stock.

The agricultural stock in the Government villages is shown in the marginal table. Interpreting ploughing cattle to mean bulls, bullocks and male buffaloes, there is one pair to every 21·42 acres in occupation, the district average being one pair to every 15·59 acres; there are 27 cows and cow buffaloes to every 100 inhabitants against a district average of 23; and there are 55 sheep and goats to each hundred acres in occupation, the average for the district as a whole being 51.

Bulls and bullocks	28,291
Cows	43,679
Male buffaloes	929
Cow buffaloes	9,474
Young stock	31,718
Sheep	111,122
Goats	61,981
Ploughs	21,915
Carts	1,268

Industries.

Industries other than agriculture are of no great importance; tanning used to be well represented at Karúr, but has now died out there; it is still carried on at Pallapatti; a little brassware is made in Karúr, and there are the usual petty manufactures.

Professions are represented by the usual class of officials, priests, vakils, schoolmasters and native doctors. There are several men of importance in this taluk, either merchants, landholders or officials. The first named are chiefly the Chettis (Kómati) and Rávuttans of Karúr and Pallapatti. The chief landholders are the Putti family (Bráhman) who are related to the family of Púrniah, the famous minister of Mysore; the chief representatives of it are to be found at Ándánkóvil, Sinna Dhárápuram, Nerúr, and Pugalúr, their united lands, inherited chiefly as grants by Púrniah, amounting to many hundreds of acres of wet land. The Pillais, whose chief representatives are at Karúr and Nerúr, are often well-to-do.

Trade.

Trade is of some importance; hides, raw and tanned, are imported and exported, and there are well-to-do merchants in cloth, grain, and money at Karúr, Pallapatti and Aravakkuric'chi. A considerable trade in grain and oil-seeds finds an outlet by Karúr railway station. Products are almost entirely rural, save brassware, leather and common cloths.

Places of interest.

Karúr is a place of great antiquity, and may possibly be the Skandapuram of the old Kongu country; it cannot now be completely identified, as Skandapuram is evidently a Sanskritized name. It was referred to about 110 A.D. by Ptolemy as *Καροὺρα Βασιλεῖον Κῆρο Βόθρον*, and was evidently a place of importance as the capital of the ancient kingdom of Chéra. During the struggles between the rival dynasties of Chéra, Chóla and Pándiya, it changed hands more than once and after the absorption of the Chéra by the Chóla kingdom Karúr was still of importance. Some Roman coins of the Emperors Augustus, Tiberius and Claudius were found here in 1806. With the rise of the Náyaks,

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Karúr fell to the kingdom of Madura; but it was frequently attacked and occupied by the Mysore armies and towards the end of the seventeenth century it was finally annexed to the latter kingdom, and became its most important frontier post. In 1736 Chanda Sahib besieged it unsuccessfully. In the year 1760 the town was captured by the English after a short siege, and held by them till 1768, when it was retaken by Hyder, to whom its possession was confirmed by treaty in the following year. In 1783 Colonel Lang held the fort for a few months. It was a third time captured in 1790 by General Meadows, and again restored in 1792. At the close of the second Mysore war, in 1799, which ended with the death of Tippoo, Karúr was finally ceded to the English, and was abandoned as a military station in 1801. The ruins of this oft-contested fort remain, though in some places nearly obliterated. A monument to the British who fell in the siege is on the south bank of the river. Karúr is mentioned in ancient Tamil works as Tiruvánilai (*Tiru*=sacred + *á*=cow + *nilai*=stall) or the spot where the sacred cow stood; and in the local stalapuránas it is called Pasupati, which conveys the same meaning. The present name Karúr, which signifies 'an embryo village,' is said to have been given to the place as Brahma began his work of creation here. (Cf. the Sanskrit name Brahmapuri by which appellation the town is frequently referred to in the Puránas.)

Karúr is a place of some sanctity, being one of the seven sacred stalams or Sivâlayams of the Kongu country. The principal temple is that of Pasupatíswara Swámi (Siva), a considerable edifice of some antiquity and with numerous stone inscriptions. The lingam is about 5 feet high and bears a mark accounted for as follows: A cow discovered the buried lingam and bathed it with milk in the fashion customary in these stories; the owner discovering, but not recognising, the piety of the cow, gave it a heavy blow, and the hoof of the startled animal striking against the lingam caused the injury. The buried lingam was of course disinterred and provided with a shrine, which is said to have been built by a Chóla king.

The Sub-Collector's head-quarters were formerly at Karúr. It is a rising municipal town of considerable trade and its chief difficulty is that of extension, owing to its being entirely surrounded by paddy-fields and the river. Population 10,750, of whom 9,693 are Hindus, 737 Musalmans and 320 Christians. As many as 3,015 are traders, while the number of landholders is only 891. It is the head-quarters of the tahsildar as well as of the district munsif and is an important station of the Wesleyan Mission who have an orphanage and an industrial school; post office; railway

station; police station; hospital; municipal high school; several chatrams. The Jesuit fathers established a mission here as early as 1639. Weekly market on Saturday.

Aravakkuric'chi, 18 miles south-west of Karúr, is a deputy tahsildar's station; population 4,514, of whom 3,181 are Hindus, 1,179 Musalmans and 154 Christians; police station; post office; sub-registrar's office; local fund dispensary and chatram; distance from Karúr 18 miles, south-west. It contains an old temple highly sculptured and the ruins of a fort. The fort was built by a Mysore Rájá, and was on three occasions—1768, 1783 and 1790—forcibly occupied by British troops. On the last occasion the fortifications were destroyed, and the site made over to the poligar of Ándippatti. There is a small branch of the Goa Mission (Roman Catholic) here. Weekly market on Thursday.

Pallapatti: population 7,653, of whom 1,998 are Hindus, 5,654 Musalmans and one Christian; as many as 2,834 are traders union under the Local Boards Act; post office. It is a large Labbai village which was formerly included with Aravakkuric'chi, but has recently been detached from it and made a separate village. It is the head-quarters of a considerable trade in hides, leather, cloth, &c., carried on by the Labbai traders, who are often well-to-do. A weekly market is held here on Monday.

Sinna Dhárápuram: 18 miles south-west of Karúr; population 1,885, of whom 1,545 are Hindus, 259 Musalmans and 81 Christians; police station; travellers' bungalow and chatram. It contains a very old Siva temple, and some bastions of the old mud fort are still standing. There is a weekly market on Tuesday.

Nerúr: population 6,104, of whom 5,963 are Hindus, 29 Musalmans and 112 Christians; post office. The village is situated 5½ miles east-north-east of Karúr and contains two old temples dedicated to Siva and Vishnu. The betel-vine is largely cultivated here.

According to the stala purána, Nerúr was originally a forest inhabited by certain rishis who were being constantly worried by a rákshasa. The rishis complained to Íswara who sent Ganésa to extirpate the rákshasa; Ganésa was discomfited in the struggle that ensued and feeling quite exhausted, lay down in a corner. Íswara then sent Subrahmanya, who slew the tyrant, and finding the place a good one, adopted it as his abode. Siva waited for a long time for the return of his sons, but in vain; he then implored Vishnu who sent Bharata and Lakshmana with instructions to kill the rákshasa and to take Ganésa and Subrahmanya with them. They found that the rákshasa had already been slain by Subrahmanya, but were unable to clear the forest. Lakshmana

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Places of interest.

reported the matter to Vishnu, whereupon Siva and Vishnu started for the place with their attendant minor gods. Siva opened his fire-eye, and the flame (Agni) that proceeded from it soon cleared the forest; Agni found a swayambulingam in the forest, and worshipped it with great veneration. Siva was delighted at this, converted the spot into a village and ordered his sons to live in it. It was called Agnipuri (*Tamil* Nerúr), as Siva (in the form of a swayambulingam) was worshipped by Agni. The village contains the samádi or tomb of the great sage Sadásiva Brahmam. The Rájá of Pudukóta, who is a disciple of the sage, pays a visit annually to this tomb in October or November, followed by a large retinue. He worships a lingam placed on the tomb, and when the prayers are over, large numbers of Bráhmans, who come from different parts of Southern India, are fed by the rájá; and each of them receives a present of one rupee.

Puliyúr: population 2,762, of whom 2,757 are Hindus. It is said that the village is named after Vyágrapáda (*Tamil* puli) rishi who worshipped Íswara here. There is an old Siva temple in the village.

Panchamádévi: population 1,364. There are two temples in the village, one dedicated to Siva and the other to Vishnu. Brahma is alleged to have prayed to Íswara here, uttering the holy Panchákshara, and it is related that the deity was pleased with his devout prayers and appeared before him in person both as Siva (Panchanada) and Vishnu (Mádhava). Hence the name Panchamádévi.

Tándóni: 1½ miles south of Karúr; population 1,860; several chatrams. There is an old and well-sculptured Vishnu temple on a small hill. The image of the deity is cut out of a portion of the solid rock. The shrine is considered very holy and vows are often made to the deity. Upanayanams (thread investiture ceremonies) and marriages are celebrated here by pilgrims from different parts of the district, as at Tirupati in the North Arcot district.

In the hamlet of Malappatti is an isolated tomb raised to the memory of Lieutenant Stanley and other officers and sepoys who were killed and wounded in the siege of Karúr in 1783.

Véttaimangalam: 12 miles north-west of Karúr; population 3,572. This village is said to owe its origin to a Chéra rájá, who, when out hunting one day, saw the spot and struck by the beauty of the scenery, founded a village there. The village was named Véttaimangalam after this incident. There is an old Siva temple here.

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Punnam: population 3,579; travellers' bungalow; chatram. According to local legends the name is derived from the punna or pinnei tree (*Calophyllum inophyllum*), in a tope of which situated in the neighbourhood of the village Varuna or the rain-god sent his prayers to Siva. There is a weekly market on Friday.

Pugalúr: 10 miles north-north-west of Karúr railway station, and itself a railway station. There is an ancient temple dedicated to Subrahmanya on a small hill close to the Cauvery. The temple is well sculptured. The name is said to be derived from the Tamil word *Pugal* meaning praise. The gods found it difficult to worship Íswara daily, as the rains had continually failed for some time; they implored the deity's aid, and Siva appeared in person, summoned the sea and ordered it to pour down a good shower. The gods were highly delighted at this and gave praise to Íswara. The village is celebrated for its plantains which are largely sent to Madras and other places by rail. The Pugalúr channel is named after this village. A weekly market is held here on Thursday.

Kuppam: population 3,141. In the local stala purána the word is derived from Kumbam (Agastya) Muni who is supposed to have prayed to Íswara here, but the name merely means a hamlet.

Tennilai: population 9,546, of whom 9,333 are Hindus, 124 Musalmans and 89 Christians; travellers' bungalow; chatram. The village is situated 16½ miles west of Karúr and is divided into four parts: (1) Tennilai Mélbhágam, (2) Tennilai Kízhbhágam, (3) Tennilai Tenbhágam, and (4) Tennilai Venkatápuram. There is an old Siva temple. A market is held here once a week on Wednesday.

Uppidamangalam: population 5,184, of whom 5,145 are Hindus. A weekly market is held here on Sunday; it is the largest in the whole taluk. Over 500 head of cattle are brought in for sale at these weekly markets.

Kóyampalli: population 1,796; distance from Karúr 4½ miles, east. Female cloths are woven and dyed here, and betel is largely cultivated.

Venjamán Gúdalúr: population 4,461; distance from Karúr 12 miles, south-west. There is an old Siva temple here. It is one of the seven Kongu Siválayams which are held in great veneration by the Hindus. The Kudaganár runs close to the village.

Velliyanai: population 5,762; police station; chatram. The village is situated about 10 miles south of Karúr and is well-known chiefly for its dholl which is considered the best in the whole district.

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Ándippatti: this estate is the largest in the district. It has an extent of 14,965 acres or over 23 square miles and pays to Government a peshkash of Rs. 5,166–5–3 annually. The estate comprises the following eight villages:—

Village.	Population.
Álamarattuppatti	319
Ammápatti	1,777
Angakavundanpatti	181
Éramárappatti	439
Ísanattam	1,979
Periyamanjavali	2,905
Sinnamanjavali	..
Téttuppatti	1,228
	8,828

The present poligar is Immudi Kumára Periya Tambi Bomma Náyakkar. He is of the Tottiyan or Kambalattán caste.

The last holder of the estate had incurred large debts on account of his own youthful extravagance and for payment of litigation charges, and the pálaiyapat was advertised for sale in June 1880 in execution of a decree of the *District Court*. The present poligar who was at that time a young lad of twenty-one requested the Collector to undertake the management of the estate and to discharge the debts due by it from its resources. On the recommendation of Mr. Nicholson, who was then acting Collector of the district, the Government authorized the Collector to undertake the management of the estate. A loan of Rs. 40,000 at 5 per cent. was granted by Government to liquidate the debts. It was subsequently found that this amount was insufficient and a further sum of Rs. 22,000 was therefore sanctioned. A mortgage deed was executed by the poligar in December 1881 for the loan of Rs. 62,000 received by him from Government. The estate continued under the Collector's management until February 1893 when the poligar paid up the balance of the loan due by him. The estate is now worth over a lakh of rupees and its gross annual receipts are estimated at Rs. 15,000.

KOLLÉGÁL TALUK.

General description. THIS taluk is wholly distinct from the rest of the district in locality, elevation, climate, soil, language, and people. It lies on the extreme north of the district and is bounded on the north and west by Mysore, on the south by Satyamangalam and Bhaváni, and on the east by Bhaváni and the Salem district. Its area is estimated at 1,076 square miles, of which only 382 have come under survey.

Hills. The taluk forms part of the Mysore plateau, and is separated from the Coimbatore district on the south and east by chains of mountains pierced here and there by passes, of which the chief are the Gazzalhatti and Hássanúr gháts on the south, the Nadukkával-Kávéripuram on the east, and the Bargúr ghát road on the south-east. The general elevation of the plateau is from 2,500 to 3,000 feet, with peaks and ranges of hills rising from 4,000 to 5,000 feet.

Rivers. The chief rivers are the Cauvery, Gundal and Honnolai; the first is the north and north-east boundary of the taluk; the second rises in the Biligirirangam hills in Mysore and joins the Cauvery about 3 miles north of Kollégál; the third rises in the Hássanúr and Tálavádi hills, and enters the Cauvery about 2 miles from Kollégál. There are several jungle streams besides the above rivers.

Soil. The soils are generally good; the low assessment is due to the general character and position of the taluk rather than to the productive powers of the land. Of 128,106 acres assessed at the settlement in the surveyed portion of the taluk, no less than 98,589, or 77 per cent., are in the black and red loam series, the balance of only 23 per cent. being red sand. As the former are the most productive soils in the country, and as cattle and forests abound, the capability of these soils is readily inferrible.

Forests. The forests of Kollégál are its chief features; on the south and east the forests are vast and almost untrodden except by wild tribes. They abound in the different feræ, while the flora are rich and varied. The sandalwood forests especially are celebrated and yield a considerable revenue to Government. For a more detailed account of these forests reference should be made to chapter XI.

Fauna. The taluk has some good cattle, and its business is rather in stock-breeding than in arable farming. At the Mádéswara hill festivals of Dípávali, Sivarátri and Yugádi there are large cattle

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fairs at which many thousands of cattle change hands. Púnáe'chi, Sangadi and Kowdalli are mentioned as notable places for cattle of the pure Álambádi breed.

Climate.

The climate is subtropical owing to its elevation, and its rainfall is considerable, averaging 36 inches, as it shares largely in the south-west monsoon. It has been alleged by some of the inhabitants that the rainfall has decreased of late years, but this is very doubtful; the cleared area is so small as compared with that of hill and forest that it can have had no effect in diminishing the rainfall, and the clearance of late years has been insignificant, as shown by the cultivation returns. Fever is of course prevalent, and the water is generally bad; but for this drawback the taluk in the matter of climate, soil, and unoccupied area would form a magnificent field for European enterprise, especially now that the Mysore railway has a station within 30 miles of Kollégál. The directions in which capital would repay investment will be gathered from this notice, such as the repair of irrigation works, the cultivation of superior crops, the breeding of cattle, and so forth.

Communications.

The taluk is ill-provided with roads, only the main lines being tolerable. Two main lines run up from the low country, one by way of Tálavádi, through the Mysore territory, and the other by way of Andiyúr and Bargúr in Bhaváni taluk. The total length of roads in the taluk is 102 miles. There is no railway or telegraph in this taluk.

Administration.

The taluk lies in the Deputy Collector's division. The chief local revenue officer is the tahsildar (salary Rs. 200). He is also a magistrate, and he is assisted in his magisterial work by the taluk sheristadar at Kollégál. The taluk forms a single police division under an inspector and is divided into five police station charges. In respect to civil actions it is situated within the jurisdiction of the district munsif of Kollégál. The number of villages, including the town of Kollégál, is 149, and all but 19 are inhabited. Of the total number 146 are Government villages and 3 are shrotriem or inám.

Population.

The population in 1891 was 88,533, of whom 43,580 were males and 44,953 females. The population of the Government villages is 83,316. Hindus number 84,952, Musalmans 3,269 and Christians 292. The population has increased by 14·20 per cent. since 1881, and there are now 82 persons to the square mile. The number of occupied houses is 14,776, and there are on an average as many as 6·0 inmates to each house. Of the male population 90·75 per cent. are illiterate, 7·34 per cent. can read and write and 1·91 per cent. are learning. Of the females 99·73 per cent. are

illiterate. Canarese is the mother-tongue of 69,847 persons, Telugu that of 10,908 and Hindustani that of 3,662. Classified by means of subsistence the population consists of 54,709 land-holders and tenants, 8,315 agricultural labourers, 6,884 general labourers, 5,139 traders, 4,306 weavers, 3,811 other artisans and 5,369 others.

Population.

The land.

The area of ryotwári land in the taluk is 647,700 acres, that of minor ináms is 4,900 acres and that of whole inám villages 25,600 acres. Of the ryotwári land 149,600 acres are under forest and 192,100 acres are not available for cultivation. Of the remainder 79,100 acres are in occupation, and the area available for extension of cultivation is thus 226,900 acres. All the minor inám lands are of course occupied. The area cropped in 1892–93 was 72,500 acres of ryotwári land and 3,482 acres of minor inám, or 0·91 of an acre per head of the population of Government villages. Including the area cropped more than once the total extent was 89,900 acres, or 1·08 acres to each inhabitant. Ragi is the principal crop and is grown on 36,200 acres. There are about 17,300 acres under cholum and 4,300 acres under rice.

The agricultural practice differs somewhat from that below gháts, and partakes rather of the Mysore plateau. Garden cultivation is little practised, probably owing to the good rainfall. Wheat is grown on dry land from July to October, and sugar-cane is also a dry as well as a wet crop. Ragi is also grown on dry land. Mulberry trees are grown to a considerable extent for feeding silk worms; on the 31st March 1893 there were 6,624 acres under this crop.

The seasons of the chief crops are noted below :—

Crops.	Sowing time.	Reaping time.
	Dry.	
Ragi	July and August ...	October and November.
Cholum	April	August.
Cumbu	August and September ...	February and March.
Dholl	July	Do.
Horse-gram	October and November ...	Do.
Bengal-gram	November	February.
Other pulses	Do.	Do.
Gingelly-oil seed ...	June	September and October.
Castor-oil seed ...	August and September ...	February and March.
	Wet.	
Paddy	June	January.
Sugar-cane	April and May	March.
Mulberry	July and August ...	June.
Betel-vines	November and December.	September and October.

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The land.

Of the total area of ryotwári holdings in fasli 1302 the dry lands comprised 66,906 acres and the wet or irrigated lands 5,949 acres. The average assessment per acre in fasli 1302 was As. 14-7 for dry and Rs. 3-13-5 for wet, or Rs. 1-2-5 for all lands taken together. There were in that year 8,988 single and 6,262 joint pattás, and 8,185 of the former and 5,147 of the latter were for sums below Rs. 10. The normal land revenue of the taluk is Rs. 79,400 and the cesses charged on land revenue amount to Rs. 12,200.

Irrigation.

The chief sources of irrigation are the Gundal, Honnolai and Cauvery rivers and the channels fed by them, besides several rain-fed tanks. The river Gundal irrigates five villages, the Honnolai river irrigates two villages and the Cauvery one. There are four masonry dams across the Gundal in four different places, and they feed the four channels as under—

(1) Pálaiyam channel.
(2) Doddanalla.
(3) Pápanakere.
(4) Danakere.

Though this river is considered a living one, yet its magnitude is so small and awkward that it can hardly carry as much quantity of water as is required to irrigate the whole extent of land under it.

Irrigation wells are hardly known; it is said that only in one village (Hanúr) well irrigation is carried on by cattle lifts "after the fashion of the Kongu proper, by some Telugu-speaking Kammavárs." The total area irrigated in 1892–93 was only 7,000 acres, but if the extent irrigated more than once be included, the area comes to about 8,400 acres.

Agricultural stock.

The agricultural stock in the Government villages is shown in the marginal table. Interpreting ploughing cattle to mean bulls, bullocks and male buffaloes, there is one pair to every 8·68 acres in occupation, the district average being one pair to every 15·59 acres; there are 49 cows and cow buffaloes to every 100 inhabitants against a district average of 23; and there are 43 sheep and goats to each hundred acres in occupation, the average for the district as a whole being 51.

Bulls and bullocks ...	18,816
Cows	38,478
Male buffaloes	529
Cow buffaloes	2,481
Young stock	19,505
Sheep	24,164
Goats	12,082
Ploughs	10,760
Carts	5,145

Industries.

There are few industries other than those of agriculture, cattle-breeding and weaving. There are about 2,000 looms in the taluk. Silk rearing and weaving are carried on to some extent, and the gold-laced cloths and kerchiefs of Kollégál are

Industries.

good and well known; Álalli Induvádi, Singánallúr, Kamakere and Kongarahalli are the chief breeding places, and Kollégál is the chief seat of manufacture; silk cloths vary in price from Rs. 5 to Rs. 300, or even higher, according to the quantity and quality of the silver and gold embroidery, which, in the highest priced cloths, is woven in intricate and elegant designs into the texture of the cloth while still in the loom.

Places of interest.

Kollégál: population 9,946, of whom 9,372 are Hindus, 589 Musalmans and 14 Christians; as many as 1,364 are traders and 3,042 are weavers; the number of landholders is only 2,187. It is the head-quarters of the taluk and is situated on the Cauvery, in the extreme north of the taluk. It is a union under the Local Boards Act and has a police station, a post office, a sub-registrar's office, a hospital maintained by local funds and a travellers' bungalow. There is an old well-sculptured Siva temple containing inscriptions. There was a fort here, but it is greatly demolished. It is the chief seat of manufacture of the gold coloured cloths, turbans and kerchiefs for which the taluk is famous. There is also a sandal-wood godown belonging to the Forest department. A weekly market is held on Monday. Kollégála signifies the plundered town, which appellation was bestowed upon it after it had been pillaged while under the dominion of Ganga Raja, to whom it formerly belonged.

Álambádi, 10 miles north-east of Kollégál, has now a population of only 41 inhabitants, but it was an important place in the seventeenth century, and it has given its name to the famous breed of cattle. It was garrisoned by British troops in 1768 but relinquished on the advance of Hyder's army. There is also an old fort in the village. In the bed of the Cauvery, close by, is a remarkable rock called 'the Smoking Rock' which perpetually throws up a cloud of spray. The natives assert that this is in consequence of there being a deep hole or chasm in the river-bed, four palm-trees deep, into which the water always falls; nothing however can be seen of this from the bank, and the smokelike column seems to arise from the bosom of an unbroken stream. The effect is striking and peculiar. There is a strange wild legend[4] connected with the spot. Bhúpála Chóla, one of the old Chóla kings, while going out on a hunting excursion, discovered a great chasm which swallowed up and wasted the waters of the Cauvery river. He employed a great multitude of men to fill it up, but all their efforts were unavailing, though the king resided for eight years close by, the better to superintend the work. At last a

[4] Taken from the archæological notes of Mr. M. J. Walhouse, late of the Madras Civil Service, published at pages 363-64 of volume x of the *Indian Antiquary*.

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rishi told him that his labour was in vain, for the *chakra* of Vishnu had entered the earth there, and that the only remedy was for some virtuous king to enter the chasm and seat himself on the *chakra*, when the gulf would close. So after many ceremonies and distributions of gifts, this Hindu Curtius proceeded in state to the river, and solemnly cast himself into the chasm, which immediately closed. Some of the water, however, still finds its way in and throws up a smokelike cloud to mark and commemorate the spot and the sacrifice. On the bank opposite there stands a hoary old Siva temple, which is now in ruins. It is well-sculptured and is said to have been wrecked by the Muhammadans. Within the enclosure of the temple is a range of ten or twelve huge black Linga stones, each in a canopied cell; oblations to these are supposed to be efficacious in removing barrenness. Not far below, the wide river is bridled with a curb of stone, being suddenly narrowed to less than half its width between rocky walls with sharp granite reefs in mid channel, through and over which the swirling flood rushes in foaming rapids and broken falls with a roar audible afar, and just at the entrance of this dangerous strait is the romantic 'Goat's leap' crag.

Sivasamudram or *Sivanásamudram,* [5] lit. 'Sea of Siva': this is an island formed by the branching of the Cauvery river into two streams, each of which makes a descent of about 200 feet in a series of picturesque rapids and waterfalls known as the 'Cauvery falls'; situated 9 miles north-east of Kollégál, and close to the frontier of Mysore; about 3 miles long by three-fourths of a mile broad. The island is properly called Heggura, but the name of Sivasamudram is derived from an ancient city, of which a few remains lie strewn around. It appears to have been a strongly fortified place with three separate lines of fortifications. Inside were palaces and temples.

According to tradition, the island of Sivasamudram is a most holy place; situated in the forest known as Dandakáranyam, it was the residence of the seven rishis during the Trétáyuga, the second or silver age of the world.

Rama is said to have visited the island when on his way to Lanka and to have slain a giant who was oppressing the rishis. After this the rishis lived in great tranquillity for a long period, and on their death the island became desolate till Tiruc'cholaráyan re-discovered the place about the beginning of the sixteenth century.

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[5] This notice is based on an article published at pages. 83-94 of the *Madras Journal of Literature and Science*, vol. i.

Places of interest.

Tiruc'chólaráyan was a petty king of Kéraladésam, or Malabar, who, having accidentally killed a Bráhman, left his dominions in order to bathe in the Cauvery and expiate his sin by performing devout ceremonies, building temples, and distributing alms. As he travelled in search of a place where he could accomplish his object, he came to the island of Sivasamudram, and deeming it a suitable spot, he settled there, and became the first king of the island. Here he exercised his authority, applied all his resources to the construction of temples, provided for the performance of daily worship and ceremonies, and granted agrahárams to Bráhmans. He also obtained possession of twelve villages on the western side of the river. In his reign the Rangaswámi pagoda was erected. After his death Vishnuvardhana, his only son, succeeded him, and ruled over the kingdom in peace till the day of his death, when he was succeeded by his son Sríranagaráya. The reigns of these three soverigns are supposed to have lasted about eighty years; and after the death of Sríranagaráya, the island and its dependencies were deserted for a time.

Eventually Gangaráya, a petty prince of Umattan in the province of Mysore, visited the desolate island and built a fort with gates of brass, and a bridge over each of the branches of the Cauvery. He also repaired the dilapidated pagoda of Rangaswámi, and enlarged the ruined pagoda of Sómeswaraswámi.

The following story describes the tragic end of this prince: A chuckler (a man of the leather-working caste), named Amba, having discovered a root which had the power of making a man invisible, ground it into very fine powder, and mixing it with a little oil, made a mark on his forehead with the composition. He frequented the king's table and helped himself from the royal dishes. He continued to do this, it is said, for the space of about twelve years, but at last the queen's attention was attracted by the unusual consumption on the days of his visits and she determined to ascertain the reason of it. One day the dishes were very highly seasoned and both king and chuckler perspired freely with the result that the magic composition on the forehead of the latter dissolved and he became visible. On being questioned who he was, he confessed the truth and instantly fell down dead. The king finding that he had been defiled, consulted the Bráhmans, who decided that he and his consort must throw themselves into the Cauvery in order to expiate so great a sin. In obedience to the priestly mandate, he saddled his favourite mare, and seating his wife behind him he proceeded to the precipice which overhangs the falls of the western stream. Five times he urged his mare to the edge but each time she refused to take the fatal plunge. At

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last he blind-folded her, and once more putting her at the awful leap, horse and riders disappeared in the boiling waters below. The fall in consequence received the name of Gangana Chuki, or 'Gangan's Leap' and the most perpendicular part of it is known as 'The Mare's Tail.' Another Gangaráya, a nephew of the hero of the falls, was besieged by his brother-in-law, but having destroyed the bridges, he successfully held the island for twelve years. The enemies' troops were, however, admitted by treachery to the fort which they could not gain by their valour, and on seeing that further resistance was hopeless, Gangaráya collected all his family within the citadel and exploding a mine which had been prepared for this last extremity, perished in the ruins.

In 1791, at the time of the advance of the British army, under Lord Cornwallis, upon Seringapatam, Tippoo laid waste the surrounding country, and drove all the inhabitants and cattle into this island. Subsequently the whole area became overgrown with jungle, and the old stone bridges connecting it with the mainland became impassable. About 1824 their repair was undertaken by a confidential servant of the Resident of Mysore, named Rámaswámi Mudaliyár. He expended several thousand pounds on the works and was rewarded by the British Government with the title of Janópakára Kámkarta or Public Benefactor. He also received a Jágír, or rent-free estate, from the British Government, with a rental of Rs. 8,000 a year, and seven villages from the Mysore State, yielding an additional Rs. 9,000. The new bridges are built on pillars of hewn stone founded in the rocky bed of the stream and connected by stone girders. A bungalow has also been erected by the Jágírdár, where European visitors are entertained.

The most favourable time to visit the falls is in the rainy season, as during the winter months the island is malarious. The Gangana Chuki falls are about two miles below the bungalow. The waters divide round a small island called Ettikúr, and dash with a deafening roar over vast boulders of rock in a cloud of foam. Dr. Buchanan wrote: "I have never seen any cataract "that for grandeur could be compared with this; but I shall not "attempt to describe its broken woody banks, its cloud of vapour, "its rainbow, its thundering noise, nor the immense slippery "rocks from whence the dizzy traveller views the awful whirlings "of its tumultuous abyss."[6] The falls on the eastern branch of the river, called the Bara (Bada?) Chuki, are more easily accessible, and display a yet greater volume of water. In the rainy season an unbroken sheet, a quarter of a mile wide, pours over the rocks;

[6] *Mysore, Canara and Malabar*, vol. i, page 407.

but during the dry months this separates into several distinct cascades. In the centre is a horse-shoe recess, down which the principal stream falls, and then rushes forward through a narrow gorge to again precipitate itself 30 feet into the deep pool below.

Near the Gangana Chuki falls is the tomb of Pír Wali, an ancient Musalman saint, held in great veneration by all the Musalmans of the district. A grand festival takes place here annually which is well attended, the place being considered to be only second in importance to Nágúr (Nagore) in the Tanjore district.

Bandahalli (Bandahalli from *Banda*, Can. rock, and *halli*, Can. hamlet): population 1,882, of whom 1,574 are Hindus, 306 Musalmans and 2 Christians; distance from Kollégál 84 miles, east. There was a fort on the top of a hill called Vikramadurgam, which was garrisoned in the time of Hyder and Tippoo, the descendants of whose soldiers are still living here.

Singánallúr: 7½ miles east of Kollégál. It has a small ruined fort which has been abandoned ever since it was plundered by the Mahráttas before the government of Hyder. Previous to the invasion by Lord Cornwallis, the suburb contained a hundred houses; but having been plundered by the Brinjáris or Lambádis that brought grain to his army, the bulk of the inhabitants perished from hunger. It now contains 263 houses and has a population of 1,963, of whom 1,863 are Hindus. There is a temple dedicated to Basava, or the bull of Íswara. Silkworms are reared here and a cattle market is held every week on Friday.

Kowdalli: population 627, of whom 438 are Hindus, 166 Musalmans and 23 Christians. When Buchanan visited this place in 1800, it was a very important town, being on a principal thoroughfare between the country below and that above the gháts. The inhabitants were then traders and their servants and dependants. A small torrent, named after the village, passes near; the water of this stream is excellent, and may be procured, even in the driest seasons, by digging a little depth in the sand of the channel. Europeans are acquiring lands here for gold prospecting. There is a police station as well as a chatram in the village. It is a notable breeding place for cattle of the pure Álambádi breed.

Mádéswaramalai, *Mahádévéswaragiri*, or the hill of the great Lord: a large hill village situated 39 miles east-south-east of Kollégál. Population 1,499, of whom 1,405 are Hindus. This hill produces sandalwood, and has on it a very celebrated temple, from whence it derives its name. The shrine is resorted to, during Dípávali, Sivarátri, and on new-moon days, especially in the month of Tai (January–February). There is a large annual cattle

Places of interest.

fair in November–December and another in February–March, which attract large numbers of people from Salem, Mysore and other places.

Bastípuram: this is a small village of 600 inhabitants, situated a mile south of Kollégál. The place was formerly a Jain town, but it is now deserted. There is a Jaina image here still. The stones of the old Jain temple were utilised in building the bridge over the Cauvery at Sivasamudram.

Sattégálam, 7 miles north by east of Kollégál, is a large village containing 2,404 inhabitants. Sattégálam is Canarese for the Sanskrit name *Brahmapuri* which means the town of Brahma, for Brahma is supposed to have performed a penance to Siva here. It is one of the Jágír villages granted to Rámaswámi Mudaliyár—*vide* notice of Sivasamudram. There is an old and well-sculptured Siva temple, containing inscriptions, situated on the Cauvery, and a ruined old fort is hard by. According to tradition Ráma, when on his way to Lanka, formed the great reservoir at Sattégálam, and a fine dam, named Danakere, that waters much land below the village. Sattégálam formerly belonged to rájás who were of the same family with those of Mysore. On the death of Puṭ Arasu, the last of them, without issue, he was succeeded quietly by his relation, Kanṭhírava, the Kartar (Rájá) of Mysore. The place was peopled by a large number of Bráhmans in the time of Hyder. In the last Mysore war, it was plundered by the Lambádis, belonging to the British army, and then burned by orders from the Sultan. Writing in 1800, Buchanan says, "the inhabitants are "hardly able to defend themselves from the beasts of prey, with "which, from its depopulated condition, the country abounds."

Mudikundam: population 2,065, of whom 1,980 are Hindus; distance from Kollégál about 2 miles, south-west. It is a good mart for the sale of spices from the low country.

Madhuvanahalli (from *Madhu*, San. honey, *vana*, San. forest and *halli*, Can. hamlet) is a large village of 2,607 people, situated about 3 miles east of Kollégál. The mulberry plant is cultivated here and silkworms are reared.

Bailúr (from *Bail*, Can. plain and *úr* village), 25 miles south-south-east of Kollégál, is a small village containing 365 inhabitants. It has a police station, a travellers' bungalow and a chatram, and is remarkable for its sandalwood plantations.

Rudrápuram, situated on the banks of the Tatta-halla, 2 miles below Hanúr, was formerly a large place. It had rice and sugar grounds watered by a dam and canal from the Tatta-halla; but now the whole is in ruins.

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Hampápuram: population 750. The village is well-known for its large-sized brinjals. It is occasionally subject to inundation.

Guliyam.

Santakana.

At each of the above-mentioned places a cattle fair is annually held at the Dípávali and Sivarátri festivals, *i.e.*, in the months of October-November and February-March. At the former festival, from two thousand to three thousand head of cattle are brought in for sale and at the latter from 1,000 to 1,500.

Chinchelli: population 83. Here too a cattle fair is annually held at the same time as at Guliyam and Santakana, but the number of cattle brought for sale is much smaller.

PALLADAM TALUK.

PALLADAM. General description.

THIS large taluk lies in the centre of the district, and is bounded on the north by Satyamangalam, on the east by Erode and Dhárápuram, on the south by Udamalpet, Polláchi and Dhárápuram, and on the west by Coimbatore. It is a somewhat flat, dreary plain, in area 741 square miles, and having neither hills nor forests.

Rivers.

The river Nóyil bisects the taluk and, with the exception of the jungle stream called the Nallár, is its only river.

Soil.

The soils are black cotton, chiefly in the south and south-west, with conglomerated calcareous tufa in parts bordering on Dhárápuram; about Palladam and northwards to Avanási and Chéyúr the soil is chiefly reddish gravel; near the railway from Mangalam to Súlúr there are rich tracts of red loam and red sand, with occasionally black and reddish-black tracts. About three-fifths of the dry area are of the classes assessed at one rupee and upwards.

Fauna.

Animals are in no way remarkable, whether wild or domestic. A few antelope and an occasional wolf are still found on the open plains between Palladam and Súlúr, and panthers occasionally resort from the Satyamangalam taluk to the more northern villages. Small game is tolerably abundant, and duck and teal are found in profusion on the tanks. Many of the sheep are of a peculiar kind known as kurumba; they are characterized by having white bodies and black heads, and a true wool instead of hair; these are always tended by Kurumba shepherds, whose females weave the wool into coarse blankets. The yield of wool is very small. For further particulars reference may be made to Chapter V of Volume I.

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Flora.

Trees are not abundant, and even hedges are not so numerous as in the eastern taluks; the kiluvai (*Balsamodendron Berryii*) also often gives place to various kinds of euphorbia.

Climate.

The climate is hot and very rainless, since it shares fully neither in the south-west nor north-east monsoon; a rainfall of 20·33 inches is the average of twenty years. The wind is furious, but fairly cool in the former monsoon, as the taluk lies opposite to the Palghat gap.

The main south-west line of the Madras Railway traverses the taluk from east to west and has stations at Tiruppúr, Mangalam, Kúlipálaiyam, Sómanúr and Súlúr.

Communications.

The taluk is intersected by numerous roads, their total length being 274 miles. They are kept in good repair and are considered to be the best in the whole district. The most important of them are—

(1) The Karúr-Méttuppálaiyam road, which enters the taluk near Noc'chippálaiyam and runs in a north-westerly direction, passing through Tiruppúr and Avanási. Length within the taluk, 23 miles.

(2) Road from Coimbatore to Kángayam *viâ* Palladam, 29 miles. This enters the taluk near Irugúr and Oddarpalaiyam and runs eastwards, passing through Súlúr, Palladam, Mádappúr and Avanásipálaiyam.

(3) Road from Udamalpet to Tiruppúr, northwards, *viâ* Periyapatti and Palladam, 26 miles.

(4) Road from Avanási to Palladam, southwards, *viâ* Mangalam, 14 miles.

(5) Road from Avanási to Puliyampatti, north-north-west, *viâ* Chéyúr, 14 miles.

(6) Road from Dhárápuram to Tiruppúr, north-west, *viâ* Avanásipálaiyam, 14 miles.

(7) Road from Palladam to Dhárápuram, south-east, *viâ* Kundadam-Mélmugam, 10½ miles.

(8) Road from Palladam to Pollächi, south-west, 10 miles.

Administration.

The taluk lies in the Head Assistant Collector's division. The chief local revenue officer is the tahsildar (salary Rs. 225). He is also a magistrate, but the bulk of the magisterial work is performed by the stationary sub-magistrate at Palladam and the sub-magistrate at Avanási. The taluk forms two police divisions each under an inspector and is divided into ten police station charges. In respect to civil actions the portion of the taluk lying to the south of the Madras Railway is situated within the jurisdiction of the district munsif of Coimbatore, while the rest of the taluk is included within the limits of the Erode district munsif's jurisdiction. The number of villages is 195, and all of them are inhabited and ryotwári.

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Population.

The population in 1891 was 270,390, of whom 132,337 were males and 138,053 females. Hindus number 263,422, Musalmans 4,200 and Christians 2,759. The population has increased by 26·71 per cent. since 1881, and there are now 365 persons to the square mile. The number of occupied houses is 56,061, and there are on an average 4·8 inmates to each house. Of the male population 90·72 per cent. are illiterate, 7·39 per cent. can read and write and 1·89 per cent. are learning. Of the females 99·73 per cent. are illiterate. Tamil is the mother-tongue of 188,025 persons, Telugu that of 66,613 and Canarese that of 13,719. Classified by means of subsistence the population consists of 116,786 landholders and tenants, 25,489 agricultural labourers, 16,306 general labourers, 27,760 traders, 16,885 weavers, 42,643 other artisans and 24,521 others.

The land.

The area of ryotwári land in the taluk is 428,800 acres and that of minor ináms is 44,300 acres. Of the ryotwári land 11,300 acres are under forest and 38,400 acres are not available for cultivation. Of the remainder 369,900 acres are in occupation, and the area available for extension of cultivation is thus 9,200 acres. All the minor inám lands are, of course, occupied. The area cropped in 1892–93 was 289,500 acres of ryotwári land and 31,300 acres of minor inám, or about 1·19 acres per head of the population. Including the area cropped more than once the extent was 369,800 acres, or 1·37 acres to each inhabitant. Cholum is the principal crop and is grown on nearly 151,500 acres. There are about 62,700 acres under cumbu, 21,700 acres under ragi and 38,200 acres under horse-gram. Cotton is largely cultivated, the extent under it being 46,500 acres.

The seasons of the chief crops are noted below :—

Crops.	Sowing time.	Reaping time.
	Dry.	
Cholum	October	January.
Cotton (on black soil).	November	March–April.
Horse-gram	September	December.
Bullock-gram	October	January.
Cumbu and pulses ...	August	December.
	Garden.	
Cholum	November, March ...	February, June.
Ragi	July	October.
Chillies	August	December and January.
Onions	May	July.
Tobacco	Sown in September, transplanted in November.	February, March.
	Wet.	
Paddy	August	December.
Sugar-cane	May	Next May.
Turmeric	May	December.

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The land.

Of the total area of ryotwári holdings in fasli 1302 the dry lands comprised 365,554 acres and the wet or irrigated lands 3,633 acres. The average assessment per acre was Rs. 1-0-4 for dry and Rs. 7-6-3 for wet, or Rs. 1-1-4 for all lands taken together. There were in that fasli 13,283 single and 19,034 joint pattás, and 8,902 of the former and 10,485 of the latter were for sums below Rs. 10. The normal land revenue of the taluk is Rs. 3,98,500 and the cesses charged on land revenue amount to Rs. 55,600.

Irrigation.

Irrigation is inferior. The following extract from the Settlement report gives details :—

"The river Nóyil, a tributary of the Cauvery, takes its source "in the western range of hills above Bólampatti, and traverses the "taluk from west to east. There are thirteen dams thrown up "across it to direct the water for irrigation, but the supply is so "scanty (except during freshes, which are of rare occurrence) that it "does not suffice to fill the tanks dependent on it; 2,294 acres are "irrigated by anicut channels leading directly from the river. A "small stream called Nallár, rising in the uplands in the neighbour-"hood of Annúr, Coimbatore taluk, and joining the Nóyil, is also "utilised to some extent, but is a precarious source. The petty "tanks are dependent on rainfall and surface drainage."

The total area irrigated in 1892–93 was 67,100 acres, but if the area irrigated more than once be included, the total extent comes to 93,200 acres. The chief irrigation is from the Nóyil. During the settlement 1,211 acres were transferred to dry owing to the failure of the spring channels which used to be dug in the Nóyil bed. There can be little doubt but that while the Nóyil is as precarious as ever, and its floods as violent, its under-current is much less, and no longer repays the trouble in channels dug below Súlúr. The forest operations in the Bólampatti valley may possibly renew the underground flow.

Agricultural stock.

The agricultural stock in the taluk is shown in the marginal table.

Bulls and bullocks ...	48,877
Cows	34,065
Male buffaloes	400
Cow buffaloes	6,005
Young stock	38,765
Sheep	148,625
Goats	37,997
Ploughs	27,368
Carts	5,508

Interpreting ploughing cattle to mean bulls, bullocks and male buffaloes, there is one pair to every 16·81 acres in occupation, the district average being one pair to 15·59 acres: there are 15 cows and cow buffaloes to every 100 inhabitants against a district average of 23; and there are 45 sheep and goats to each hundred acres in occupation, the average for the district as a whole being 51.

Industries. Industries other than those of blanket-weaving and cotton-pressing are unimportant; good spectacles of pebble are made and sold at about a rupee per pair by seven or eight families of lapidaries at Muttanampálaiyam near Tiruppúr; these also work the crystals into lingams and other images.

Places of interest. **Palladam**: population 1,190, of whom 1,164 are Hindus; head-quarters of the taluk; police station; post office; local fund hospital; sub-registrar's office; travellers' bungalow. There are large tracts of good black-cotton soil in the neighbourhood. The town has a ruined fort and possesses two cotton presses. A weekly market is held here on Monday. A catechist of the London Mission is stationed here.

Avanási: population 1,321, of whom 1,261 are Hidnus, 54 Musalmans and 6 Christians; police station; post office; sub-registrar's office; travellers' bungalow; two chatrams. In ancient Tamil works the village is called 'Pukkoliyúr or Tiruppukkoliyúr.' It is situated on the trunk road, on an affluent of the Nóyil, and 8 miles from Tiruppúr railway station. It was formerly the head-quarters of the taluk, but is now only a sub-divisional station, with a deputy tahsildar. Previous to the opening of the railway it was a posting stage on the road to the Nílgiris. It contains an old Siva temple which is one of the seven Kongu Siválayams; the *Nandi* is of colossal size. In the outer porch of the temple are two stone images of alligators, each vomiting forth a child, in memory, say the Bráhmans, of a child, who, through the intercession of Sundaramúrti Náyanár, was disgorged uninjured after having been swallowed by an alligator. Within the precincts of the village is a pit whence the materials of a subterranean vault consisting of large slabs were removed, some of which are lying about the mouth of the hole. There are a number of dolmens in the neighbourhood. The bridge over the river is built in the old Hindu style, as seen at Vijayanagar, on stone pillars sunk in the bed of the river with slabs resting on them. A weekly market is held on Thursday, and a great annual fair on the occasion of the car festival in April-May, when large numbers of the finest cattle are brought by the great breeders for sale. A handsome bronze jug was dug up about the year 1860 near Avanási. A great city is traditionally said to have stood where it was found, but only some indistinct mounds and hollows now mark the spot; not only, 'periere etiam ruinæ', have the very ruins perished, but the name too has been forgotten, and only a dim tradition survives that palaces and temples once spread widely there. With the jug were found a bronze globular oil-vessel with straight tapering spout, and a bronze lamp stand for one wick, both of the forms

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still commonly in use; but the jug is of a shape not at all Hindu, and rather resembles what is known to manufacturers as 'the Windsor pattern.' It has been suggested that this jug might have been brought into the district by the early Greek and Phœnician sailors. The sunn-hemp (*Janappu-nár*) is largely cultivated in the neighbourhood.

Karavalúr: population 1,845; distance from Palladam 16 miles, north-north-west. It contains a famous temple dedicated to Máriamman. The car festival, which is celebrated in February or March, is attended by a very large number of people who come to the place from different parts of the district. A large cattle fair is usually held on this occasion. Weekly market on Friday.

Karumuttampatti: population 3,640, of whom 2,910 are Hindus, 24 Musalmans and 706 Christians; police station; post office; travellers' bungalow and chatram. It is situated 11 miles north-west of Palladam on the trunk road to Madras. It was an ancient Roman Catholic settlement, and has a Roman Catholic chapel built in 1660. Good pomegranates can be had here.

Mondipálaiyam: population 708; distance from Palladam 22 miles, north-north-west. It contains a famous Vishnu temple, which is resorted to by large numbers of pilgrims, especially on Saturdays in the month of Purattási (September-October). Vows are often made to the god by persons living in the neighbouring villages, who proceed thither to fulfil their vows; they generally shave their heads as pilgrims do at the famous shrine of Tirupati in the North Arcot district.

Avanásipálaiyam: population 3,151, of whom 3,122 are Hindus and 29 Musalmans; police station; travellers' bungalow and chatram; distance from Palladam 10 miles, east-south-east. In the hamlet of Koduvóy there is an old Siva temple with inscriptions, as well as a Vishnu temple. In the hamlet of Pudup-pálaiyam is another old Siva temple with several inscriptions.

Tiruppúr: population 5,235, of whom 4,245 are Hindus, 947 Musalmans and 43 Christians; as many as 1,875 are traders; union under the Local Boards Act; police station; post office; railway station; local fund dispensary; travellers' bungalow and chatram; distance from Palladam 9 miles, north-north-east. A great deal of cotton is despatched from this place, and it now possesses two cotton presses, one of which is worked by steam generated by kerosine oil. The quantity of cotton pressed during the year 1893 is estimated at about 811,200 lb. or 362 tons and the quantity cleaned at 126,240 lb. or 56 tons. It has also a good market and a bridge over the Nóyil. The car festival celebrated in honour

of the local deity, in the month Vaikási (May-June), attracts large numbers of people from the adjacent villages, and a cattle fair is generally held on the occasion.

Súlúr: population 4,713, of whom 4,647 are Hindus, 58 Musalmans and 8 Christians; union under the Local Boards Act; police station; post office; sub-registrar's office; railway station and chatram; distance from Palladam 11 miles, west. On the large chatram here is a Tamil inscription, dated A.D. 1841, which states that one Kuppanáyakkan of Karadibávi village built it at a cost of Rs. 3,874. It has good tanks fed by the Nóyil. Weekly market on Friday.

Sómanúr: hamlet of Karumuttampatti; railway station. The inhabitants are Roman Catholics. Good shirting cloths are manufactured here in imitation of those made at the Basel Mission and elsewhere. A weekly market is held here on Wednesday.

Mangalam: population 1,726, of whom 1,094 are Hindus, 478 Musalmans and 154 Christians; as many as 606 are traders; railway station; distance from Palladam 9 miles, north. It is inhabited by Labbais who are chiefly traders. A mile east of the village are several dolmens and stone circles, some of which remain unopened.

Chéyúr: population 2,101, of whom 2,022 are Hindus, 78 Musalmans and one Christian; police station; distance from Palladam 18 miles, north. There are two Siva temples, with inscriptions. The village was once the head-quarters of a taluk; the court of a district munsif was located here; it was at one time, partly through the zeal of the then district munsif, an educational centre, at which in 1859 a normal school was unsuccessfully started. There is a tank in the village called Sembaiyankulam whose water is said to be very wholesome, probably on account of its mineral properties. Tradition has it that one of the earlier rájás of Mysore used to take water from this tank every day and that by drinking it for some years he was cured of diabetes. Parched rice (*பொரி*) is largely manufactured here and sent to Madura, Dindigul and other distant places. A weekly market is held on Monday.

Sávadipálaiyam: hamlet of Kétanúr; 5½ miles south of Palladam. On the road from Palladam to Udamalpet near the 6th milestone are a dolmen and a stone circle. A large hoard of punch-mark coins was discovered here in September 1807 at the opening of one of the ancient tombs known by the name of pándavarkulis.

Kannampálaiyam: population 2,357, of whom 2,075 are Hindus and 282 Christians. Rough country cloths are manufactured in the village.

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Places of interest.

Tirumuruganpúndi: this village lies 4½ miles north-north west of Tiruppúr railway station and 12 miles north-east of Palladam. It contains a very old Siva temple bearing numerous inscriptions. The temple is one of the seven Kongu Siválayams and as such is held in great esteem by Saivites.

Kanakkanpálaiyam: population 1,638, of whom 598 are weavers. It is somewhat of a weaving centre, but the weavers manufacture only the coarse kinds of country cloths.

Muttanampálaiyam: population 2,545. About seven or eight families of lapidaries make and sell good spectacles of pebble; these also work the crystals into lingams and other images.

Irugúr: population 4,629. Several pándavarkulis were recently opened here, they were found to contain pieces of pottery, a few weapons and implements and occasionally some human bones. Good cumblies (coarse blankets) are manufactured in the village.

Alagumalai: population 2,955; distance from Palladam 11 miles, east. On the top of a small hill bearing the same name is a temple dedicated to Subrahmanya.

In the hamlet of Kóvilpálaiyam is a fine camping ground.

Senjéri Malaippálaiyam: population 394. On the top of a hill in the neighbourhood is a temple dedicated to Subrahmanya. A weekly market is held here on Thursday.

Anupparpálaiyam: hamlet of Vélámpálaiyam.

Angálipálaiyam: hamlet of Settipálaiyam.

At these two places brass, copper and bell-metal vessels are manufactured.

POLLÁCHI TALUK.

POLLÁCHI.

General description.

THIS taluk is one of the most interesting in the district by reason of its fertility, climate and scenery. It lies on the extreme south-west of the district under the shadow of the Ánaimalais, which are the southern barrier between it and Travancore. On the east lie Udamalpet and Palladam, on the west the spurs of the Ánaimalais, the Cochin territory and the Malabar district, on the north the Coimbatore taluk. Its area including unsurveyed hills is about 710 square miles; it contains 131 Government villages with a surveyed extent of 383 square miles, and seven pálaiyapats with 37 villages embracing an area of 84 square miles. The whole surface is diversified by undulations, which, though too gentle to be called hill and dale, yet pleasantly break the monotony of a plain. Approaching it from Coimbatore, the road south of

General description.

Kinattukkadavu passes through a country of evidently superior culture, and there is an aspect of prosperity in the look of the soil and crops which is not usually seen, though villages and people are no different in appearance from those of the rest of the country. The abundance of trees and the nature of the avenues, as well as the frequent streams along the fertile bottoms, evidence a moister climate and better rainfall, and, should it be in the time of the south-west monsoon, the visitor will remark the pleasant temperature, the drifting mists and cloudy sky which would remind him of more temperate climes but for the winds, which blow with a violence and persistency that are almost incredible; it is with difficulty that on the exposed hills near Kinattukkadavu the horseman or the light cart can make way against the violent gale blowing from the west across the road.

Hills.

As the traveller approaches Polláchi, the Ánaimalais, which have throughout been conspicuous towards the south, loom vaster and vaster, until at Polláchi itself they are seen to be magnificent and picturesque in the extreme, with towering peaks rising from 6,000 to 8,000 feet, gigantic cliffs, noble forests, and here and there the gleam of a waterfall. Turning east along the great southern road which leads from Palghat to Udamalpet and the east coast, the same noble hills are kept in near view, while the road to the west brings the traveller immediately under the lower spurs until he reaches the Malabar district at Minkarai. The hills themselves are in several ranges, such as the Kúchmalai on the west, the Túnakkadavu on the south-west, and the Púnác'chi on the south.

Rivers.

The chief rivers are the Áliyár, Uppár, and Pálár. The Áliyár takes its rise on the Travancore territories and descends from the hills in Navamalai in the Kóttúr village. The Uppár also comes from the hills, descends in Véttaikkáranpudúr frontiers, and empties itself into the Áliyár near the Ánaimalai town. The Pálár descends from the hills in the frontiers of Dhali village in the Udamalpet taluk, and after passing through the several villages of that taluk enters into the frontiers of the Polláchi taluk and empties itself into the Áliyár a few miles below the Ánaimalai town.

Soil.

The soils are fairly good, especially near the hills; red loam accounts for 39 per cent. and red sand for 54 per cent. of the surveyed area, while black cotton soil of a superior description, chiefly on the extreme east of the taluk, occupies 7 per cent. The red soils in the parts around Ánaimalai, which fifty years ago were virgin forests, are extremely fertile, and produce magnificent cholum crops; the improvidence of the ryot is here exhibited in his reckless waste of manure, whether animal or otherwise, which lies everywhere around the villages; the extraordinary

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Soil.

number of kites hovering over these villages attests the variety of animal refuse, while they perform to some extent the office of scavengers. When these soils are used up, as in some tracts of Udamalpet, the ryots will cry out about their poverty. The borders of the various jungle and surface streams are very rich, and are cultivated with the highest classes of produce; such lands are hardly to be bought.

Forests.

Forests are abundant, but less so than before a premium was offered to the clearance of the lower tracts by low assessment, and before population and its increasing wants had led to a considerable destruction of the jungles. At present, timber and firewood are largely brought to the Polláchi market for sale, and cost 2 to 2½ rupees per cart-load for ordinary firewood, the nearest available jungles being 10 or 12 miles distant. There are about 188 square miles of forests in the taluk, the largest of the reserves being the Ánaimalai blocks.

Fauna.

Game of all sorts, from elephant and bison to pea-fowl, abound in the upper hills; the lower hills and jungles have been swept bare of almost every hoof and feather by the incessant drives to which they had hitherto been subjected by the villagers. The rules issued under the Forest Act, however, now provide for the efficient protection of game in reserved forests and in areas notified as 'reserved lands.' Cattle, sheep and horses are not of special importance in spite of the facilities for pasture and fodder.

Flora.

The teak and other timbers of the Ánaimalais have long been celebrated, the Bombay dockyards having been largely supplied with teak from Túnakkadavu by way of Beypore. It is dearer, but better than Palghat timber, but is now less worked owing to the cessation of the demand and to the convenience of the railway which traverses Palghat. In the time of Colonel Fullarton (1770) and Buchanan (1800) a vast teak forest extended between Pollάchi and Palghat and troops traversing it had literally to cut their way through; so recently as 1840 herds of elephants might be seen in the virgin forests, which then extended up to the Ánaimalai village bungalow; this tract is now an open plain, destitute of all except ordinary trees, cultivated, and traversed by good roads.

Climate.

Being under the influence of the south-west monsoon, the rainfall is rather higher than in other taluks except Kollégál, and enables a second crop, chiefly of horse-gram, to be largely cultivated in the west. The cool breezes from the sea are healthful and invigorating, and the climate generally is healthy; the villages near the hills alone are very feverish, and many of their inhabitants have the cachectic appearance of habitual sufferers by

fever. Small-pox, said to spread from Malabar, is occasionally epidemic, but cholera, in spite of the insanitary state of some villages, is not especially prevalent.

Communications.

There are no railways in the taluk and the roads are not numerous, the total length in the taluk being only 124 miles. The most important of them are—

(1) Road from Madura frontier *viâ* Udamalpet and Polláchi to Minkarai in Malabar; length within the taluk, 25 miles.

(2) Road from Polláchi to Palladam, north-east, *viâ* Negamam, Sirukalandai and Káttampatti, 20 miles.

(3) Road from Polláchi to Ánaimalai hills, *viâ* Samattúr, 14 miles.

(4) Road from Polláchi to Palghat, in a westerly direction, passing through the pálaiyapats of Úttukkuli and Rámápattanam. Length within the taluk, 10 miles.

(5) Road from Polláchi to Dhárápuram, east, 7 miles.

There are post offices at Polláchi and Ánaimalai; and the office at the first mentioned place is a combined post and telegraph office.

Administration.

The taluk lies in the Head Assistant Collector's division. The chief local revenue officer is the tahsildar (salary Rs. 175). He is also a magistrate, but the bulk of the magisterial work is performed by the stationary sub-magistrate at Polláchi. The taluk forms a single police division under an inspector and is divided into six police station charges. In respect to civil actions it is situated within the jurisdiction of the district munsif of Udamalpet. The number of villages, including the town of Polláchi, is 168, and all but seven are inhabited.

Population.

The population in 1891 was 183,669, of whom 89,259 were males and 94,410 females. The population of the Government villages is 148,690. Hindus number 180,250, Musalmans 3,264, and Christians 155. The population has increased by 6·22 per cent. since 1881, and there are now 259 persons to the square mile. The number of occupied houses is 39,975, and there are on an average 4·6 inmates to each house. Of the male population 86·84 per cent. are illiterate, 10·69 per cent. can read and write and 2·47 per cent. are learning. Of the females 99·60 per cent. are illiterate. Tamil is the mother-tongue of 106,437 persons, Telugu that of 58,676, and Canarese that of 16,565. Classified by means of subsistence the population consists of 67,280 land-holders and tenants, 39,428 agricultural labourers, 11,836 general labourers, 20,756 traders, 8,250 weavers, 19,702 other artisans and 16,417 others.

The land.

The area of ryotwári land in the taluk is 350,800 acres, that of minor ináms 17,700 acres, and that of zamindáris or pálaiyapats 53,760 acres. Of the ryotwári land 120,300 acres are under

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forest and 2?,400 acres are not available for cultivation. Of the remainder 207,600 acres are in occupation, and the area available for extension of cultivation is thus only 500 acres. As the pálaiyapat lands are probably equally fully occupied, there is a very small margin for extension of cultivation, and future population must migrate or cultivate better. The area cropped in 1892–93 was 181,100 acres of ryotwári land and 12,600 acres of minor inám, or about 1·30 acres per head of the population of Government villages. Including the area cropped more than once the extent was 229,000 acres, or 1·54 acres to each inhabitant. Cholum is the principal crop and is grown on 103,800 acres. There are 31,400 acres under cumbu, 27,000 acres under horse-gram, 11,200 acres under ragi and 5,500 acres under rice. The extent under cotton and tobacco is 6,600 and 2,000 acres, respectively, and that under oil-seeds is 11,500 acres.

Mention has been made above of the superior culture of this taluk due to better soil and better rainfall. Paddy is grown on dry land as well as wet and yields a good outturn. Dry lands are often cultivated with cholum in April-May and with gram in August. The chief crops and their seasons are tabulated below:

Crops.	Sowing time.	Reaping time.
	Dry.	
Cholum	April-May	August–September.
Sámai	May	August.
Cumbu	July	November-December.
Ragi	April-May	August-September.
Horse-gram	August	January.
Tinai	July	November.
Castor	May	February-March.
Gingelly	April	July.
Chillies	July	December to March.
Tobacco	September	February.
Tuvarai	July	Do.
	Garden.	
Cholum	April-May	August-September.
Ragi	Do.	Do.
Chillies	July	December to March.
Tobacco	September	February.
	Wet.	
Paddy	June-September	November-February.
Gingelly seed	April-May	July–August.
Sugar-cane	July-March	June-April.

Tobacco is fairly good; the chillies are among the best in the district and noted for pungency; the outturn is very large, being from 3,000 to 5,000 Madras measures per acre. Coffee is grown to a small extent at Púnác'chi on the Ánaimalais, and cardamoms are also procured to some extent by the Kádars.

The land.

Of the total area of ryotwári holdings in fasli 1302 the dry lands comprised 201,600 acres and the wet or irrigated lands 6,000 acres. The average assessment per acre in fasli 1302 was Rs. 1–0–3 for dry and Rs. 4–11–11 for wet, or Rs. 1–1–11 for all lands taken together. There were in that fasli 3,976 single and 6,778 joint pattás, and 1,866 of the former and 2,202 of the latter were for sums below Rs. 10. The normal land revenue of the taluk is Rs. 2,55,400 and the cesses charged on land revenue amount to Rs. 34,600.

Irrigation.

The taluk is irrigated partly by jungle rivers or streams and partly by tanks fed by them. The chief of the jungle streams are the Áliyár, Uppár and Pálár. The irrigation from these jungle or minor rivers is inferior to that of the Bhaváni, Nóyil, and Amarávati. It is carried on principally by means of channels led off from the anicuts or masonry dams constructed across the rivers and by means of water stored in tanks from such channels. The Áliyár irrigates by far the largest portion of wet lands in this taluk in the villages of Kóttúr, Káliyápuram, Odaiyakulam, Ánaimalai and Márchináyakkanpálaiyam. The river has four anicuts across it before it is joined by other streams, viz., first, Pallivilangál anicut, second, Ariyápuram anicut; third, Kárappatti anicut; and fourth, Periya-anai or the big dam. After it is joined by the Uppár, it has the Vadakkalúr anicut close to the town of Ánaimalai. The first, Pallivilangál anicut, irrigates by channels 645 acres in Kóttúr and Káliyápuram; the second, Ariyápuram-anai, 1,173 acres in Kóttúr, Tensangampálaiyam, Sómandurai, and Ánaimalai; the third, Kárappatti-anai, 656 acres in Káliyápuram and Odaiyakulam; and the fourth, Periya-anai, 1,856 acres in Káliyápuram and Ánaimalai. The fifth, which is built across the joint river, the Vadakkalúr channel, irrigates 680 acres in Ánaimalai and Márchináyakkanpálaiyam. There is an anicut across the Uppár by a channel from which water is stored in a tank in Odaiyakulam, irrigating a portion of the lands in that village to the extent of 288 acres. The channel itself irrigates direct about 50 acres in Odaiyakulam and 76 acres in Káliyápuram. On the Pálár there is an anicut called Sómandurai-anai which supplies by a channel a tank in that village belonging to Samattúr poligar, irrigating chiefly the pálaiyapat lands, and partly certain wet lands that have reverted to Government. The Chinnár, a minor stream from the hills which empties itself into the Áliyár in the jungle, irrigates a tract of wet lands close to the hills and jungles in the Kóttúr village by means of a small anicut of loose stones. Besides these minor rivers there are other smaller jungle streams traversing the taluk, of which two supply two small tanks, one

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in Dévampádi and the other in Kombanai village; other minor jungle streams help in the cultivation of small patches of wet and garden lands, mostly from private anicuts built under orders. Under the Áliyár and Uppár also there are small extents of wet lands cultivated on payment of dry assessment, by means of private anicuts and channels.

The irrigation from these minor rivers is pretty good generally near the anicuts, but as it gets farther it gets poorer till it becomes insignificant.

The following table gives statistics of the irrigation works:—

—	Áyakat.	—	Áyakat.
	ACRES.		ACRES.
Ariyápuram channel ...	1,173	Mámangappallam channel.	5
Álánjéri anicut channel ...	11	Ellaippallam do. ...	17
Áttúr do. ...	273	Vairanjólaippallam do. ...	13
Pallivílangál do. ...	645	Oliyáppallam do. ...	6
Kárappatti do. ...	656	Kulappattu tank	288
Periya-anai do. ...	1,856	Elavakkarai do.	55
Vadakkalúr do. ...	680	Dévampádi do.	210
Pálár do. ...	28	Kódavádi do.	123
Orambuppallam do. ...	85		
Káttuppallam do. ...	21	TOTAL ...	6,145

In addition to these there are 4,268 wells, which are used for the purpose of irrigation. The total area irrigated in 1892–93 was 19,620 acres, but if the extent irrigated more than once be included, the total extent comes to about 25,100 acres.

Agricultural stock.

The agricultural stock in the Government villages is shown in the marginal statement. Interpreting ploughing cattle to mean bulls, bullocks and male buffaloes, there is one pair to every 12·46 acres in occupation, the district average being one pair to 15·59 acres; there are 24 cows and cow-buffaloes to every 100 inhabitants against a district average of 23; and there are 28 sheep and goats to each hundred acres in occupation, the average for the district as a whole being 51.

Bulls and bullocks	35,364
Cows	28,754
Male buffaloes	802
Cow buffaloes	7,201
Young stock	27,981
Sheep	42,633
Goats	21,316
Ploughs	18,482
Carts	2,807

Industries.

There are practically no industries except agriculture. Forest products are honey, wax, shell-lac, pálai-indigo, wild ginger, turmeric, cardamoms, horns, and ivory; cloth is also woven to some extent.

Places of interest.

Polláchi: population 5,805, of whom 5,120 are Hindus, 574 Musalmans and 111 Christians; as many as 1,879 are traders,

while the number of land-holders is only 709; head-quarters of the Head Assistant Collector's division and of the taluk; union under the Local Boards Act; police station; post office; sub-registrar's office; excellent local fund hospital; middle school; travellers' bungalows; several chatrams. It has probably been always a place of trade, since its position on the highway from the West to the East Coast doubtless made it in old times a meeting place for eastern and western produce, and Alexandrian merchants not improbably halted and chaffered here, as at Karúr and other marts of India. In the year 1800 a pot was dug up here containing a great many Roman silver coins. Buchanan, who visited the place in the year of the find, says that they were of two kinds, viz., the Emperors Augustus and Tiberius, but all of the same value, each weighing 56 grains. In the vicinity of the village are a number of dolmens and rude stone circles. These are termed by the people 'Mándavarkuli,' or 'graves of the dead;' the common name for them elsewhere is 'Pándavarkuli' which may be a corruption due to Bráhman influence. These burial places are of great interest, as they show that greater care was taken in the disposal of the dead than obtains at present. Dr. Shortt communicated a report on them to Government, which was printed with G.O., No. 716, Public, dated 26th June 1874. Several of them were opened by Mr. Wedderburn, Collector of the district. According to an account furnished by that officer they all formed circles of various sizes, the diameter ranging from 10 to 45 feet, and contained fragments of human skulls and bones, and occassionally broken pieces of earthenware and a few implements and ornaments, at a depth of from five to seven feet below the surface. Among the other articles found in these cairns were three images and three representations of buffaloes made in bronze. The first block of images contains the "figure of a male and "female both seated, the male on the left with folded legs and his "right arm around the body of the female figure, who is also "seated next to the male with her legs stretched out, and holding "apparently a nosegay in her right hand, and her left resting on "the thigh of her male companion.

"The next block contains the same male and female figures "seated in the same attitude, the female nursing an infant and "the male holding a vessel in his right hand, possibly containing "milk.

"The third image is that of a man seated with folded legs and "open hands placed one over the other in the act of devotion, and "he is surrounded apparently by his pupils." This image taken with the others is, in Mr. Shortt's opinion, a conclusive proof that

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the three blocks constitute an offering made to fulfil a vow for progeny, and was buried in the famliy grave, as the arms, implements, utensils, &c., were burried, and in representation of their stock, casts of buffaloes were added to the others in these graves. It is clear from the position of the woman in the first two images that they are of non-Aryan origin, for in all Bráhmanical rites the man sits to the right of the woman.

A weekly market is held on Thursday, at which about 3,000 head of cattle are brought in for sale. It is the largest in the whole district. A catechist of the London Mission is stationed here.

According to Buchanan, the town derives its name from *Pollá-chi*, the second wife of a Vellála, who came to the place when the country was entirely covered with forest, and began to clear it for cultivation. Another suggestion, however, is that it is a compound word made up of *porul* = wealth and *ác'chi* or *átchi* = possession. It has also been suggested that the name is probably a corruption of *Pulláe'chi* which means possession by birds, the town being so called on account of its extensive woods, which form a favourite home for birds.

Ánaimalai: population 6,343, of whom 5,568 are Hindus, 767 Musalmans and 8 Christians; union under the Local Boards Act; police station; sub-registrar's office and travellers' bungalow; distance from Polláchi 7½ miles, south-west. It is situated on the river Áliyár, and is 8 miles from the lower spurs of the Ánaimalai range. A large tract of forest land has been gradually cleared away towards the south to make room for the augmented cultivation required. An important Government depôt for the timber felled in the neighbouring plateau has long been established here, a good cart-road connecting it with Polláchi. A market, chiefly for forest produce, is held weekly on Wednesday. Ánaimalai is described by Ward and Connor as having been an important town in the middle of the eighteenth century. It contains the ruins of an old Siva temple which is said to have been destroyed by Tippoo; worship is, however, still kept up. It is elaborately sculptured and contains many inscriptions. It owes its origin, according to tradition, to the Chóla kings, but it was repaired several times by the kings of Mysore. A little to the west of the village are the ruins of a Vishnu temple, and a fort called Chakragiridurgam on the summit of a small hill named Jain-kal-durgam, or 'hill of the Jain stone.' According to Buchanan a fort was built by the Madura rájás near the river, but this having fallen into ruins, the present fort was constructed of the same materials by the Mysore rájás. Tippoo repaired it,

using for the purpose the materials of the temples he demolished. South of Ánaimalai there are the ruins of another Vishnu temple. There is a Muhammadan masjid in the village.

Véttaikkáranpudúr : population 7,725, of whom 7,701 are Hindus, 17 Musalmans and 7 Christians; union under the Local Boards Act; local fund dispensary; distance from Pollácbi 9 miles, south-west. It was formerly a hamlet of Ánaimalai, but it is now distinct—and malodorous in the extreme.

In the early days of the British administration, the village was covered with jungles which were cleared by one Venkatáchala Mudaliyár of Ánaimalai. He was rewarded for this with an ivory palanquin and a dagger which are still preserved by his descendants. During the famine of 1877–78 this village supplied large quantities of grain to the distressed tracts.

Kinattukkadavu: population 3,681, of whom 3,660 are Hindus, 18 Musalmans and 3 Christians; police station; travellers' bungalow and chatram; distance from Polláchi 11 miles, north. It is a convenient halting place on the way from Coimbatore, and is a thriving village with a weekly market (held on Sunday) and a few shops. It contains a temple dedicated to Subrahmanya, with two copper-plate grants.

Kóttúr: population 8,226, of whom 7,915 are Hindus, 304 Musalmans and 7 Christians; travellers' bungalow; distance from Polláchi 8 miles, south-south-west. It is situated at the foot of a pass in the Ánaimalai hills and has a large ruined temple containing good sculpture and some inscriptions. Some time ago three copper images were discovered here and were placed in the temple at Ánaimalai.

Angalakkuric'chi: population 2,262; distance from Polláchi about 9 miles, south. Good game of all sorts including tigers abound on a hill called Tádakanác'chimalai in the neighbourhood.

Garudankóttai, 7½ miles south-south-west of Polláchi, contains an old fort and a temple in ruins. The temple is well sculptured and bears numerous inscriptions.

Márchináyakkanpálaiyam: population 4,368, of whom 4,245 are Hindus, 120 Musalmans and 3 Christians; travellers' bungalow and chatram; distance from Polláchi 3½ miles, west. There is an old masjid in the village, and hard by are the ruins of a fort.

Náttukkalpálaiyam: population 383, all of whom are Hindus. It is situated very near Polláchi, being 3½ miles south-east of it. Mr. Walhouse describes a large group of megalithic monuments here amongst the cultivated fields. There are a

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number of "large cairns close to one another, each surrounded by "a circle of unusual height and uniformity, the stones tall and "pointed, often exceeding 6 feet in height."

Úttukkuli: this pálaiyam is situated in the north-west of the taluk, a little to the west of Polláchi. It contains ten villages with a population of 7,728. The land revenue is returned at Rs. 10,600, and the peshkash payable to Government is Rs. 4,393. The present poligar is Muttu Rámaswámikálingaráya Kavundar; he belongs to the Vellála caste.

Úttukkuli: village; head-quarters of the Úttukkuli poligar; railway station; population 3,251, of whom 3,246 are Hindus. There is a small poligar fort here and two stone inscriptions in the village. It enjoys a cool climate and is celebrated for its pomegranates.

Negamam: this pálaiyam is situated in the north-east of the taluk to the north of the Ávalappampatti pálaiyam. It contains two villages and has a population of 4,214. The peshkash payable to Government is Rs. 2,481, and the land revenue of the estate is estimated at Rs. 6,000. The present poligar is Subbaráyadévi Náyakkar; he belongs to the Tottiyan or Kambalattán caste.

Rámapattanam: this pálaiyam is situated in the north-west of the taluk, to the north of the Úttukkuli pálaiyam. It contains three villages and has a population of 5,118. The land revenue is returned as Rs. 6,400, and the peshkash payable by the poligar is Rs. 1,437. The present poligar is Malaiyándi Yerrappa Kavundar; he belongs to the Tottiyan or Kambalattán caste.

Poravipálaiyam: this pálaiyam is situated in the north-west corner of the taluk and contains three villages with a population of 6,138. The land revenue is returned as Rs. 10,400, and the peshkash payable to Government is Rs. 2,805. The present poligar is Jaganmandaládhipati Gópanamannádiyár; he is of the Púluvan caste.

Samattúr and **Kóttámpatti**: this joint pálaiyam is situated 3 miles south of Polláchi town, and contains thirteen villages with a population of 7,097. The land revenue is returned as Rs. 10,600 and the peshkash payable to Government is Rs. 3,544. The present poligar is Kulandaiswámi Vánavaráya Kavundar; he is of the Vellála caste.

Ávalappampatti: this pálaiyam is situated in the north-east of the taluk, to the south of the Negamam pálaiyam. It contains six villages and has a population of 4,684. Until the year 1891 it was a single pálaiyam, but in that year it was sold by the District Court of Coimbatore in satisfaction of debts due by

the poligar, and was put up in two lots which are now known respectively as the Ávalappampatti division and the Nágúr division. The peshkash of the former is Rs. 2,762 and that of the latter Rs. 1,438. The former is held jointly by Venkatasubba Náyakkar, Gópálaswámi Náyakkar and another Gópálaswámi Náyakkar. The sole proprietor of the latter division is Venkatasubba Náyakkar. *Places of interest.*

SATYAMANGALAM TALUK.

General description. THIS taluk is the northernmost of the taluks below gháts. It is bounded on the north by Kollégál, on the north-west by the Chámaráj taluk of Mysore, on the south, south-east and south-west by the taluks of Palladam, Erode and Coimbatore respectively; Bhaváni is on the east and Gundalpéttai taluk of Mysore on the west.

Hills. On the north, north-east, north-west and west the taluk is enclosed by mountain ranges, the Nílgiris lying to the west and the gháts, which lie south of the Mysore plateau, including the Kollégál taluk, to the north-west and north. Through these latter are the Talaimalai, Hássanúr and Gazzalhatti passes, well known to British troops in the wars with Mysore as the routes through which Hyder and Tippoo launched their armies into the plains.

Rivers. The Bhaváni river flows through the taluk past the chief town and thence east till it joins the Cauvery at Bhaváni. In its course it is joined by three affluents, the Móyár which unites with it 10 miles west of Gazzalhatti, the Tattappallam and the Gandipallam. This river is in its highest flood from June to August, being fed from the Nílgiris and Kundahs.

Soils. Soils are chiefly of the classes called red loam and red sand, black soils not occupying above 8 per cent. of the area.

Forests. The forests are large and important. The principal reserves are those of Talaimalai, Velámúndi and the eastern slopes of the Nílgiris. The total area of forests on the 31st March 1893 was about 600 square miles. For a description of their working, see chapter xi. A great deal of jungle has been exhausted by villagers.

Fauna. Feræ are specially well represented in the forests, which abound in game of all sorts up to elephants, which are abundant above gháts. The Bhaváni is noted for its fish, including the mahseer. Cattle and sheep are in no way remarkable.

Flora. The flora are those of the ordinary plains, together with almost every species of forest flora to be found in the district; the sandalwood of the forests above the gháts is especially famous.

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Climate.

The climate is generally bad owing to the proximity to the hills, which radiate heat and shut off the breezes; the large area of jungle also causes a great deal of fever. The taluk does not appreciably benefit by the Palghat gap. Its rainfall averages 25·90 inches.

Communications.

There is at present no railway or telegraph line in this taluk. There are regular post offices, with the usual money order offices and savings banks at Satyamangalam, Gópichettipálaiyam and Tálavádi. The total length of roads in the taluk is 206 miles, and the chief roads are—

(1) The Hássanúr ghát road from Erode to Mysore frontier, 43 miles. This road enters the taluk near Poluvakálippálaiyam and runs in a north-westerly direction, passing through the villages of Gópichettipálaiyam, Satyamangalam, Kottamangalam, Gazzalhatti, Talaimalai, Javanakkavundanhalli and Chikkahalli.

(2) Road from Satyamangalam to Sirumugai (in Coimbatore taluk), south-west, 12 miles.

(3) Road from Satyamangalam to Coimbatore *viâ* Nallúr, Puduppálaiyam and Puliyampatti, south, 14 miles.

(4) Road from Gópichettipálaiyam to Chéyúr *viâ* Nambiyúr, south-west, 12½ miles.

(5) Road from Satyamangalam to Bhaváni *viâ* Attáni, east, 19 miles.

(6) Road from Hássanúr to Lokkanahalli, north, 16 miles.

(7) Road from Gópichettipálaiyam to Savundappúr, north-east, 10 miles.

(8) Road from Gópichettipálaiyam to Siruvalúr, south, 8 miles.

Administration.

The taluk lies in the Head-quarters Deputy Collector's division. The chief local revenue officer is the tahsildar (salary Rs. 200). He is also a magistrate, but the bulk of the magisterial work is performed by the stationary sub-magistrate at Satyamangalam and the sub-magistrate at Gópichettipálaiyam. The taluk forms two police divisions each under an inspector and is divided into eight police station charges. In respect to civil actions the portion of the taluk lying below the gháts is situated within the jurisdiction of the district munsif of Erode, while the rest of the taluk is included in the limits of the Kollégál district munsif's jurisdiction. The total number of villages is 228, and all but 37 are inhabited. All the villages are Government villages.

Population.

The population in 1891 was 184,105, of whom 90,288 were males and 93,817 females. Hindus number 178,674, Musalmans 3,264 and Christians 2,167. The population has increased by 21·67 per cent. since 1881, and there are now 155 persons to the

Population.

square mile. The number of occupied houses is 40,236, and there are on an average 4·6 inmates to each house. Of the male population 91·97 per cent. are illiterate, 6·46 per cent. can read and write, and 1·57 per cent. are learning. Of the females 99·73 per cent. are illiterate. Tamil is the mother-tongue of 110,721 persons, Telugu that of 39,271, and Canarese that of 30,879. Classified by means of subsistence the population consists of 83,307 landholders and tenants, 26,891 agricultural labourers, 13,738 general labourers, 20,581 traders, 7,954 weavers, 16,478 other artisans and 15,156 persons of various other professions.

The land.

The area of ryotwári land in the taluk is 685,500 acres and that of minor ináms 13,900 acres. There are neither whole ináms nor zemindáris. Of the ryotwári land 384,500 acres are under forest and 40,900 acres are not available for cultivation. Of the remainder 205,500 acres are in occupation, and the area available for extension of cultivation is thus 54,600 acres. All the minor inám lands are, of course, occupied. The area cropped in 1892–93 was 194,900 acres of ryotwári land and 12,300 acres of minor inám, or about 1·13 acres per head of the population. Including the area cropped more than once the extent was 221,100 acres, or 1·20 acres to each inhabitant. Cumbu is the principal crop and is grown on 110,700 acres. There are 37,700 acres under cholum, 23,900 acres under ragi and 18,200 acres under rice. Cotton and tobacco are also cultivated, the extent under them being respectively 4,000 and 2,600 acres. The area under coffee was 274 acres.

The seasons of the chief crops are entered below :

Crops.	Sowing time.	Reaping time.
	Dry.	
Cholum	July and August ...	November and December.
Cumbu	Do.	Do. do.
Sámai	Do.	Do. do.
Tinai	Do.	Do. do.
Ragi	July	January and February.
Varagu	July	December.
Castor	July	Do.
Pulses	July	Do.
Mustard	July	January and February.
	Garden.	
Cholum	October and November...	February.
Cumbu	May	July.
Ragi	July	October.
Tinai	August	Do.
Castor	July	November to January.
Wheat	November	January.
	Wet.	
Dévaráyan samba ...	August	January and February.
Sadai samba	June	October.
Kár paddy	April and May	September.

CHAP. XIX. SATYAMANGALAM.

The yield of paddy under the two great channels is very heavy; for details see Buchanan's report of 1800 and Mr. Clogstoun's Settlement Scheme Report.

The land.

Of the total area of ryotwári holdings in fasli 1302 the dry lands comprised 186,100 acres and the wet or irrigated lands 17,600 acres. The average assessment per acre in fasli 1302 was Rs. 1-1-1 for dry and Rs. 8–9–6 for wet, or Rs. 1–11–6 for all lands taken together. There were in that fasli 13,270 single and 15,274 joint pattás, and 10,391 of the former and 9,407 of the latter were for sums below Rs. 10. The normal land revenue of the taluk is Rs. 3,51,300 and the cesses charged on land revenue amount to Rs. 46,300.

Irrigation.

The subjoined statement shows the various sources of irrigation in the taluk, and the áyakat of each source :—

Source of irrigation.	Áyakat.	Source of irrigation.	Áyakat.
	ACRES.		ACRES.
Tadappalli channel ...	13,718	Pungampalli tank ...	1
Arakkankóttai channel ...	3,949	Ukkiram tank	4
Kaniyampálaiyam channel	284	Elattúr tank	83
Tattaippallam channel ...	50	Eruganalli tank	8
Doddamáyár jungle stream	309	Mudiyanúr tank	26
Hallimáyár jungle stream.	30	Kódipuram tank	37
Sózhamádévikómbai ...	17		
Panayampalli tank ...	53	TOTAL ...	18,586
Nallúr tank	17		

The two chief channels are regulated by head sluices under the control of the Public Works Department; the Tadappalli channel is 48 miles long and the Arakkankóttai 20; the former ends in the Anantaságaram tank in Perundalaiyúr and the latter falls into the Bhaváni at Perumugai.

During the months of scarcity of water, which will occur once or twice a year according to the season, say, from September onwards, a temporary dam is erected over the anicut at Kodivéri by means of turf, and water is thus directed into the channels. The charge is met from a fund called Kombanai (temporary dam), an irrigation cess levied at 4 pies per acre. Funds for the execution of the work are obtained by application to the division officer. A similar voluntary irrigation cess is levied on lands under certain channels in the taluks of Coimbatore, Erode and Karúr.

In the Tadappalli channel there are in all six branches and surplus water courses; they are detailed below:

Name.	Year in which opened.	Starting mile.	Number of sub-sluices.	Extent irrigated.	Remarks.
				ACRES.	
Puliyampattiurulai.	...	15	68	534	3 miles.
Singaiyan ...	1,863	16	103	421	
Surplus Agrahárakkarai.	...	18	...	...	
Kúgalúr ...	1,864	23	297	2,166	
Ammápálaiyam.	...	33	49	230	1 mile utilized.
Surplus Perundalaiyúr.	...	37	2	...	

The point where the Tadappalli sends off the Kúgalúr branch is called Arugankátturulai. The entire length of the Tadappalli channel is divided into five karais or divisions, viz., (1) Tadappalli-karai, (2) Sózhamádévi-karai, (3) Bódisinnámpálaiyam-karai, (4) Sengalarai-karai and (5) Seyyampálaiyam-karai. The dam has three arches with wooden shutters. In the Arakkankóttai channel there is a branch called Vániputtúr-váikkál, starting in the 6th mile with a length of 3 miles. Its irrigated extent, &c., are merged in Vániputtúr-karai.

The Anantaságaram tank, into which the Tadappalli falls, is one mile in length. It contains three sluices and irrigates 190 acres, which extent is merged in the Perundalaiyúr-karai.

Crops raised under these channels are (1) kár, (2) ayan or dévaráyan samba, (3) sadai samba.

The first is a crop of 120 days and is grown from the 33rd mile of the Tadappalli to the end, and from the 5th to the 10th mile of Kúgalúr branch, and in the whole of Singaiyan branch, with the exception of some parts of Vániputtúr branch of the Arakkankóttai channel. The second is grown in other parts or karais. The third is a crop requiring more water than either of the other two, and permission to raise this crop is therefore very sparingly granted. Ryots raising this crop without permission are charged prohibitory assessment. This crop is raised under the Singaiyan branch by permission.

Full supply in the main channels means 7 feet of water at the head sluice. In the main channels water is allowed for kár crops on the 15th April, and for ayan on the 15th August. In the branches water is allowed for kár in June according to the supply in the main. These regulations are necessitated chiefly by the wasteful expenditure of water; it seems probable, however, that the channels and anicut will bear improvement.

Irrigation.

The Public Works Department have charge of repairing, clearing silt, &c., in the main channels, while clearing brushwood and such other minor works are done by the voluntary co-operation of the ryots. For this purpose the channels are closed from 15th February to 15th April during which period the whole channel establishment is placed under the orders of the Public Works Department. On the completion of annual clearings, the Public Works Department communicate to the tahsildar the date or probable date of opening; the tahsildar then issues orders and notices to the village officials, head monigars and ryots for the punctual and economical use of water.

The ryots complain of the enormous waste through the sluices in the upper parts, as also of waste at the Násuvankulam on the Tadappalli channel and at the Puliyampatti branch. The kár cultivation is also said to be often begun late, leading to many disputes between the kár and samba cultivators.

The rain-fed tanks are insignificant.

The total area irrigated in 1892–93 was 41,400 acres, but if the area irrigated more than once be included, the total extent comes to 53,700 acres.

Agricultural stock.

The agricultural stock of the taluk is shown in the marginal table.

Bulls and bullocks	38,677
Cows	53,721
Male buffaloes	1,232
Cow buffaloes	9,026
Young stock	39,164
Sheep	108,940
Goats	40,149
Ploughs	24,889
Carts	3,535

Interpreting ploughing cattle to mean bulls, bullocks and male buffaloes there is one pair to every 10·99 acres in occupation, the average for the district being one pair to every 15·59 acres; there are 34 cows and cow buffaloes to every 100 inhabitants against a district average of 23; and there are 68 sheep and goats to each hundred acres in occupation, the average for the district as a whole being 51.

Industries.

There are practically no industries except agriculture and the ordinary petty village manufactures. Trade is chiefly concerned in the exportation of grain and importation of cloths, salt and miscellaneous goods.

Places of interest.

Satyamangalam: population 3,574, of whom 3,227 are Hindus, 319 Musalmans and 28 Christians; head-quarters of the taluk; union under the Local Boards Act; police station; sub-registrar's office; post office; hospital; travellers' bungalow; local fund chatram. It is situated 40 miles north-north-west of Coimbatore, on the Bhaváni river, which is here more than a hundred yards broad. The Gazzalhatti and Hássanúr ghát roads lead to

Places of interest.

the uplands from here. The latter is the most frequented route into Mysore. There is an old mud fort said to have been built by the son-in-law of Tirumal Náyak of Madura, which commanded the fords at the foot of the Gazzalhatti pass and was of considerable strategic importance in the Mysore wars. It was taken by the Mysore generals in 1657, captured by Colonel Wood in 1768, and recaptured by Hyder in 1769. In 1790 Colonel Floyd occupied the place, and between the fort and Danáyakkankóttai fought a severe battle with Tippoo in the same year. Here is a considerable temple dedicated to Vishnu. The *ratha* or car belonging to it is very large and richly carved. There is also an ancient Siva temple in the main village, besides another in the hamlet of Kottuvírampálaiyam. A weekly fair is held on Tuesday. The London Mission have a branch station here under a catechist.

Siruválúr: population 3,965; distance from Satyamangalam 17 miles, south-east. It lies on the road from Perundurai railway station to Satyamangalam and contains an old Vishnu temple with an inscription mentioning repairs to the temple. There is also another temple in the village dedicated to Siva. A weekly market is held here on Tuesday. The village is on high ground and enjoys a cool and salubrious climate.

Gópichettipálaiyam: population 2,104, of whom 1,920 are Hindus, 179 Musalmans and 5 Christians; union under the Local Boards Act; head-quarters[7] of the deputy tahsildar; police station; sub-registrar's office; local fund hospital; travellers' bungalow; chatram; distance from Satyamangalam 13 miles, east-south-east. It contains the best wet land in the whole taluk, and is full of well-to-do ryots and traders.

Danáyakkankóttai, 13 miles west-south-west of Satyamangalam, was formerly the head-quarters of a taluk of the same name, but is now almost deserted. There is an old ruined fort, situated on the north side of the Bhaváni, a little above the junction of the Móyár. It is said to have been built by Dana Náyak, a poligar dependent on Madura. The name signifies the fortress of the lord of wealth. His descendants were deprived of it by Bal Rájá, another dependent on the princes of Madura. From him, or at least from a descendant of the same name, it was taken by the Rájá of Mysore.

At Kallampalla a village in the neighbourhood of Danáyakkankóttai, there is a Siva temple at which an Irula priest officiates.

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[7] This will shortly be made the head-quarters of the tahsildar, the deputy tahsildar being stationed at Satyamangalam.

CHAP. XIX. SATYAMANGALAM. Places of interest.

In this temple there is a stone called 'Máriamma' or 'Máriátta,' a form of Durga, the goddess of small-pox. To her the hill tribes make offerings of goats and cocks. A sheep is sometimes sacrificed.

Perundalaiyúr : population 3,892, of whom 3,743 are Hindus and 149 Musalmans; distance from Satyamangalam 22 miles, east. This is the end of the rice-producing tract with the tank known as Anantaságaram, which is filled by the Tadappalli channel. There is an old Siva temple with many inscriptions on the walls. One of these is dated 'in the twenty-third year of Sundara Pándiya Dévar's reign,' the rest being reported to be 'illegible.' There is a Canarese copper-plate grant in the temple recording gifts of lands by Krishna Rája Udaiyár of Mysore. Weekly market on Friday.

Tadappalli or *Tadappalligrámam* : population 1,733, of whom 1,688 are Hindus and 45 Musalmans ; distance from Satyamangalam 6 miles, east-south-east. The channel of this name is taken off the Bhaváni river on its southern bank at Kodivéri anicut.

Tálavádi : population 860, of whom 664 are Hindus, 187 Musalmans and 9 Christians ; police station ; sub-registrar's office ; travellers' bungalow ; chatram ; distance from Satyamangalam 18 miles, north-north-west. A weekly market is held on Thursday.

Attitturai : 26 miles west by north of Satyamangalam. It contains the ruins of a fort built for the defence of the valley of the Móyár on a lofty isolated hill about 1,500 feet high. The fort was once very strong and almost inaccessible.

Kuttálattúr or *Guttiyálattúr* : population 4,260 ; distance from Satyamangalam 14 miles, north-north-east. Near it is an old ruined fort containing a Vishnu temple ; at the village is another old fort with a temple in ruins.

Talaimalai : population 1,152, of whom 1,086 are Hindus, 65 Musalmans and one Christian ; police station ; travellers' bungalow ; chatram. Distance from Satyamangalam 17 miles, west-north-west. There is an old ruined fort here and another at Hanumamalai, 5 miles north of Talaimalai.

Rangaswámi's Peak, 17 miles west by south of Satyamangalam, is a mountain of the Nílgiri range, situated within the limits of this taluk. There is a Vishnu temple here, which is much resorted to by the hill tribes. It is merely a circle of rough stones enclosing an upright one, with iron tridents fixed in the ground. The pújári or priest is an Irula, and he wears the Vishnu mark on his forehead. The chief worshippers are the Irulas, but the Badagas of the Nílgiris also come in large numbers once a year about sowing time, and make offerings of plantains, milk, &c., to the god. No animals are sacrificed. A cave on

the hill contains an earth regarded as holy and much valued by worshippers.

Places of interest.

Kongarapálaiyam (or the fortified village of the Kongu king): population 1,628, of whom 1,586 are Hindus, 11 Musalmans and 31 Christians; distance from Satyamangalam 8 miles, east. In the vicinity of the village is Urugamalai, a great trigonometrical station. A weekly market is held on Sunday. Good game is found in the neighbourhood.

Punjái Puliyampatti: population 699; distance from Satyamangalam 12 miles, south-west. A weekly market is held here on Thursday, at which over a thousand cattle, sheep and goats are brought in for sale.

Kúgalúr: population 4,630, of whom 4,611 are Hindus and 19 Musalmans; distance from Satyamangalam 17 miles, east. There are two old temples, one dedicated to Siva and the other to Vishnu, said to have been built by a Chéra king.

Hássanúr or *Ásanúr*; population 2,056, of whom 2,011 are Hindus and 45 Musalmans; police station; chatram; distance from Satyamangalam 14 miles, north-north-west. The Hássanúr ghát or pass forms a good road for wheeled traffic from Coimbatore *viâ* Satyamangalam to Mysore. The ghát has an easy gradient for 8 miles to a height of 3,000 feet at Dhimbam. From Dhimbam it is 4 miles to Hássanúr and 6 miles to the Mysore frontier. The road is much used and meets the Gazzalhatti track at Hardanhalli in Mysore.

Gazzalhatti ('the elephant track'): formerly the principal pass from Coimbatore into Mysore, one track leading from Satyamangalam and another from Coimbatore town *viâ* Danáyakkankóttai to the foot of the ghát. An old-fashioned bridge at the foot is still standing, but the road is no longer kept in order, though pack bullocks and donkeys still cross it in considerable numbers. The head of the pass, 2,800 feet above sea-level, is 17 miles from the Mysore frontier.

UDAMALPET TALUK.

UDAMALPET.

General description.

THIS southern taluk, formerly known as Chakragiri, is bounded on the north by Palladam taluk, on the east by Dhárápuram and Palni, on the south by the Travancore territory, the Ánaimalais being the great southern barrier, and on the west by Pollachi taluk. Its area is 583 square miles.

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Hills.

The country is an open, gently undulating plain, flat in the black-cotton tract on the west and north, but less so in the south and east.

Rivers.

The Amarávati river, which rises in the hills on the south, debouches into the plains at Kallápuram at the mouth of the Anjanád valley, and flows nearly due north on the eastern edge of the taluk. This is the only stream of importance, and, fed by the south-west monsoon, flows with some regularity from June to the end of August, failing to a greater or less extent in September, and again increasing in the north-east monsoon till November, when it gradually falls until March, at the end of which it is practically dry, save for spring channels.

Soil.

The soils are described by the Settlement department as comprising 15 per cent. of red loam, 62 per cent. of red sand, 12 per cent. of black clay, and 11 per cent. of black loam. The red soil is chiefly on the north, south and east of the taluk, the black on the south and west; hardly any of the latter is found east of the road running north and south between Dhali and Periyapatti. The so-called red sand is in some parts very stony and gravelly, and in the north and east there is a good deal of the hard calcareous tufa (odai-kal) mentioned in the Dhárápuram notice. No minerals are known to be found in this taluk.

Forests.

The forests of the taluk are a notable feature; they provide grazing grounds for the taluk cattle during the months when there is little pasturage outside, and to a certain extent are thus an aid and benefit to the ryot; on the other hand, not only does this mode of grazing cost a great deal in wages to the herdsmen and in the immense losses by wild animals and disease, but the ryot loses the whole manure of his cattle during the time that they should have been restoring fertility to his fields. There are but few hedges and trees in the taluk to supply fodder and firewood; the splendid yield of cholum and cotton seed provides, however, a vast amount of dry and rich cattle food of which none is wasted, and the cumbu, dholl and cotton stalks yield fuel; firewood is largely supplied from the forests at about 2½ rupees per cart-load delivered at Udamalpet. The open, sandy and treeless wastes south-east of Udamalpet near the foot of the hills are melancholy instances of reckless tree destruction in long distant periods; these were evidently rich jungles like those of Ánaimalai, but are now treeless and exhausted. A few reserves have been selected in the south of the taluk, but more will depend on the ryot in this taluk, where unoccupied land is almost *nil*, and the price of lands is so high; there are many black-soil villages with hardly an acre of waste, and in those the ryot must be looked to, and not Government, to supply himself with fodder and fuel. Fruit trees will grow well,

the tamarinds and pomegranates being very good—the latter the finest of their species; in the irrigated villages there is room for abundant planting of fruit trees and bamboos.

Fauna. Wild animals abound in the forests, though the lower slopes along the edges of the plains are almost devoid of game both large and small.

Climate. The climate is fairly good; the western portions share in the moisture brought by the south-west monsoon, the winds of which, though strong, are wholesome and cool, while the proximity of the hills gives a fair rainfall and abundant water to the villages on the south. In the north and east of the taluk the climate and rainfall are similar to those of Dhárápuram.

Communications. There is no railway in this taluk; a project exists for connecting Dindigul with Palghat *viâ* Palni, Udamalpet and Polláchi; the line has recently been surveyed.

There are post offices at Udamalpet, Komaralingam, Kaniyúr and Dali. The office at the first mentioned place is a combined post and telegraph office.

The main lines of road are very good; in addition there are the usual cart-tracks and lanes. The total length of roads in the taluk is 122 miles, and the chief highways are—

(1) Road from Madura frontier *viâ* Udamalpet to Polláchi, 18 miles. It enters the taluk near Madattukkalam and runs in an almost westerly direction passing through the Védapatti and Maivádi pálaiyapats.

(2) Road from Udamalpet to Dhárápuram *viâ* Kárattoluvu, 13 miles, north-east.

(3) Road from Udamalpet to Palladam *viâ* Sinnavírampatti, Kottamangalam, Gudimangalam and Periyapatti, 14 miles, north.

(4) Road from Udamalpet to Dali *viâ* Bódippatti and Pallapálaiyam, 10 miles, north-west.

(5) Road from Dhárápuram to Polláchi *viâ* Sómavárappatti and Kongalnagaram, 15 miles, west.

(6) Road from Ánaimalai to Komaralingam, 20 miles, north-east.

(7) Road from Kárattoluvu to Komaralingam, 14 miles, south.

Avenues are extremely poor; the soil, the high winds, and the absence of other trees leading to much damage by goat herds, are the main causes of the deficiency. The main road from Polláchi to head-quarters and onwards to Dhárápuram *viâ* Kárattoluvu is in much need of shade for its considerable traffic, as also the roads

CHAP. XIX. UDAMALPET.

leading to Palni, along which pass many thousands of cotton carts and pilgrims to Palni, Madura and Rámésvaram.

Administration.

The taluk lies in the Head Assistant Collector's division. The chief local revenue officer is the tahsildar (salary Rs. 175). He is also a magistrate, but the bulk of the magisterial work is performed by the stationary sub-magistrate at Udamalpet. The taluk forms a single police division under an inspector and is divided into four police station charges. In respect to civil actions it is situated within the jurisdiction of the district munsif of Udamalpet. The number of villages, including the town of Udamalpet, is 94, and all but one are inhabited. Of the total number 88 are Government villages, 5 are zemin and one is inám.

Population.

The population in 1891 was 143,056, of whom 69,346 were males and 73,710 females. The population of the Government villages is 130,554. Hindus number 138,358, Musalmans 4,357 and Christians 341. The population has increased by 27·08 per cent. since 1881, and there are now 245 persons to the square mile. The number of occupied houses is 29,776, and there are on an average 4·8 inmates to each house. Of the male population 84·58 per cent. are illiterate, 12·25 per cent. can read and write and 3·17 per cent. are learning. Of the females 99·37 per cent. are illiterate. Tamil is the mother-tongue of 77,049 persons, Telugu that of 55,793, and Canarese that of 8,685. Classified by means of subsistence the population consists of 53,103 land-holders and tenants, 26,586 agricultural labourers, 13,499 general labourers, 14,769 traders, 4,512 weavers, 18,239 other artisans and 12,348 others.

The land.

The area of ryotwári land in the taluk is 323,100 acres, that of minor ináms is 15,800 acres, that of whole ináms is 4,700 acres and that of zemindáris 29,400 acres. Of the total extent of ryotwári land 120,600 acres are under forest and 25,100 acres are not available for cultivation. Of the remainder 175,800 acres are in occupation, and the area available for extension of cultivation is thus only 1,600 acres. Of this much is hardly fit for cultivation, being rocky and stony, and the remainder is in petty patches. All the minor inám lands are, of course, occupied. The area cropped in 1892–93 was 91,300 acres of ryotwári land and 7,700 acres of minor inám, or about 0·76 of an acre per head of the population of Government villages. Including the area cropped more than once the extent was about 118,700 acres, or only 0·91 of an acre to each inhabitant. Cholum is the principal crop and is grown on 49,000 acres. There are 10,600 acres under rice, 14,900 acres under gram, 7,400 acres under cumbu and 6,500 acres under ragi. The extent under oil-seeds was 4,600 acres and that under cotton 4,200 acres.

The land.

Sugar-cane is also largely cultivated in the taluk, the area under it being about 1,145 acres. Nearly a thousand acres are under tobacco.

The seasons of the chief crops are tabulated below :—

Crops.	Sowing time.	Reaping time.
	Wet.	
Paddy	August	December to February.
Sugar-cane	July	August next.
	Dry.	
Cholum	April	July.
Cumbu	September	February.
Ragi	August	January.
Tinai	September	Do.
Sámai	Do.	Do.
Varagu	Do.	Do.
Horse-gram	October	February.
Pulses	Do.	Do.
Bengal-gram	November	Do.
Gingelly seed	March	June.
Castor seed	August	March.
Cotton	October	April.
	Garden.	
Cholum	April	July.
Cumbu	May	Do.
Ragi	August	January.
Tinai	September	Do.
Sámai	Do.	Do.
Varagu	Do.	Do.
Tobacco	November	March.
Cummin	June	August.

The only notable exception to the ordinary cultivation is that cholum is often grown as a first crop from June to September, and cotton as a second in the same year from October to April; similarly, under the hills a second crop is occasionally grown on dry land, in which case it is usually horse-gram. Pasture, except in the forests and in the proximity of the hills, is scanty, especially in the black-cotton and stony tracts.

Of the ryotwári holdings in fasli 1302 the dry lands comprised 166,100 acres and the wet or irrigated lands 9,700 acres. The average assessment per acre in fasli 1302 was Rs. 0–14–9 for dry and Rs. 5–12–4 for wet, or Rs. 1–3–0 for all lands taken together. There were in that fasli 5,814 single and 7,028 joint pattás, and 3,247 of the former and 3,294 of the latter were for sums below Rs. 10. The normal land revenue of the taluk is Rs. 2,14,300 and the cesses charged on land revenue amount to Rs. 30,100.

CHAP. XIX. UDAMALPET. Irrigation.

"The taluk is irrigated chiefly by the Amarávati and partly by "the jungle streams Kudiriyár and Pálár and tanks supplied by "them, and also by a few rain-fed tanks.

"The irrigation from the Amarávati is made chiefly direct from "channels led off from the anicuts formed by the loose piling of "stones or masonry works across the river. In a few instances the "irrigation is carried on by means of water stored in tanks from "the channels. In the case of jungle streams, the irrigation is "principally carried on by a supply of water brought by channels "from the anicuts to tanks constructed for the purpose. The irri-"gation from the Amarávati is pretty good; that from the jungle "streams and rain-fed tanks is indifferent. Of the villages irri-"gated by the Amarávati, the first, Kallápuram, is situated in an "unhealthy locality jutting into the hills, almost enclosed by hills "and jungles. It is feverish and subject to the ravages of wild "beasts. The second, Komaralingam, is partly so situated near "jungles and hills and partly on plains undulating and at different "levels which make irrigation indifferent. The other five villages "down below (Sirkár Kannádipputtúr, Sózhamádévi, Kaniyúr, "Kadattúr and Kárattoluvu) are comparatively better situated, "both as to irrigation, soil, population and position." [8]

The river irrigation is decidedly good and continues very nearly the whole year—certainly from June to April; the channels are closed for repair for two months, viz., from 15th April to 15th June. There are two Kallápuram channels, one belonging to Government and another belonging to a ryot named Kaniyúr Krishna Iyer, who was permitted in 1863 to dig a channel at his own expense from the Kallápuram anicut to supply the Rámasamudram tank, the area under which was made over to him at a reduced assessment in consideration of the above work. He now irrigates 1,134 acres, but is at continual feud with the Kallápuram ryots regarding the water-supply. That from tanks is indifferent, except in years of good rainfall, when the chain of tanks known as the Búdinattam series, which extends from Dali to Udamalpet, is fed by anicuts at the junction of the Pálár and Ténár close to Trimúrti. These streams drain the north-east slopes of the Ánaimalais and give a good supply only in the north-east monsoon, which is notoriously uncertain. West of the anicuts the Pálár supplies a tank in Valaiyapálaiyam, and thence flows into the Polláchi taluk.

The Kudiriyár flows from the Madura district and joins the Amarávati at Komaralingam.

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[8] Settlement Report.

Irrigation.

The following table shows the extent of the áyakat at the various works:—

Source of irrigation.	Áyakat.	Source of irrigation.	Áyakat.
	ACRES.		ACRES.
Kallápuram channel ...	1,431	Kozhumam tank	421
Komaralingam do. ...	2,466	Sankramanallúr	257
Sirkár Kannádipputtúr channel.	600	Páppankulam	90
		Periyakulam	1,162
Sózhamádévi channel ...	525	Sengulam	282
Kadattúr channel ...	1,110	Kandeduttamánikkamkulam.	399
Kaniyúr channel	363		
Kárattoluvu channel ...	559	Chettiyákulam	249
Chinnár and Ténár ...	298	Tullanettukulam	128
Oranjéri channel	77	Karisakkulam	207
Dali channel	31	Tinaikkulam	225
Krishnápuram channel ...	14	Álángulam	109
Valaiyapálaiyam tank ...	60		
Álampálaiyam tank ...	88		
Kannamanáyakkanúr tank	26	TOTAL ...	11,177

There was a project for a new anicut below Kallápuram, begun by ryots, but abandoned for want of funds; the scheme is a storage scheme, and was expected to irrigate about 2,000 acres at an outlay of about Rs. 50,000. Nothing is known as to the possibility of extending the irrigated area under the present channels. The slopes are so sharp and the ground so uneven that extension is probably impracticable. It is proposed to impound the flood waters of the Amarávati by constructing a reservoir across the river at Kallápuram. The scheme is considered feasible and will, if carried out, prove remunerative. Kudimarámat is customary and is similar to the practice in Dhárápuram.

The area irrigated in 1892–93 was 36,300 acres, but if the area irrigated more than once be included, the extent comes to 46,500 acres. The wells appear to be of less depth to the water, and to irrigate a larger area than in other taluks; this is probably due to the extent of black loam, which requires less water than other soils. Near the hills, where the water is very close to the surface and the soil rich, many ryots do not care to dig wells; on black-cotton soil the outturn is usually good without irrigation, while the soil and rainfall near the hills are generally so good that excellent crops are raised without the cost of lifting water. In the worse soils wells are hardly possible owing to the high and rocky nature of the land.

CHAP. XIX. UDAMALPET.

Agricultural stock.

The agricultural stock in the Government villages is shown in the marginal table. Interpreting ploughing cattle to mean bulls, bullocks and male buffaloes, there is one pair to every 15·25 acres in occupation, the average for the district being 15·59; there are 16 cows and cow buffaloes for every 100 inhabitants against a district average of 23; and there are 28 sheep and goats to each hundred acres in occupation, the average for the district as a whole being 51.

Bulls and bullocks	24,716
Cows	16,376
Male buffaloes	397
Cow buffaloes	3,927
Young stock	20,011
Sheep	30,202
Goats	23,008
Ploughs	12,853
Carts	2,363

Industries.

There are no industries except agriculture and the ordinary village handicrafts. Trade, however, is considerable, chiefly in cotton, grain, cloths and money. A large trade in cotton is carried on by traders coming from the south about March and April; they buy up cotton from the ryots or from middlemen, who employ a considerable number of hands in cleaning the cotton. It is loaded on carts, which come from Madura and Tinnevelly by thousands, and carried to the Virudupatti and Tinnevelly screws for baling and export; there is no press in Udamalpet, and that at Palladam is not only distant, but on the wrong line of rail for the southern trade.

Places of interest.

Udamalpet: population 9,968, of whom 8,811 are Hindus, 1,114 Musalmans and 43 Christians; as many as 2,519 are traders; head-quarters of the taluk; head-quarters of the district munsif of Udamalpet; union under the Local Boards Act; police station; high school; combined post and telegraph office; sub-registrar's office; travellers' bungalow; chatram. It is a seat of considerable trade; its chief inhabitants are Kómatis, Náttukkóttai chettis and Muhammadans. A weekly market is held on Monday. The London Mission have a branch station here under a catechist.

Dali or *Dhali*: population 2,085, of whom 1,972 are Hindus, 111 Musalmans and 2 Christians; police station; post office; distance from Udamalpet 7 miles, south-west. It is close to Ánaimalai and Trimúrtikóvil, and was the former head-quarters of a poligar, but the estate was resumed after the rising of the poligar in 1800. Two miles south of this village is a ruined temple of Subrahmanya, well sculptured. It is said to have been destroyed by Tippoo.

Búdinattam: population 1,459, all of whom are Hindus; distance from Udamalpet 3 miles, south-west. Its lands are well irrigated by the Amarávati, some of which produce excellent sugar-cane. There are several Behea cane-crushing mills in use here. The village gives its name to a chain of tanks extending from Dali to Udamalpet.

CHAP. XIX. UDAMALPET.

Places of interest.

Kaniyúr: population 2,987, of whom 2,619 are Hindus, 367 Musalmans and 1 Christian; post office; distance from Udamalpet 9 miles, east. It contains a small temple in ruins with several inscriptions. One of these mentions some repairs made to the building in S.S. 1265 (A.D. 1343). There is a small fort, in ruins, said to have belonged to a king called 'Kumaran,' whose exploits are celebrated in country ballads. Four miles west of Kaniyúr are the ruined remains of some Muhammadan buildings.

Komaralingam: population 4,320, of whom 3,878 are Hindus, 411 Musalmans and 31 Christians; post office; private chatram; distance from Udamalpet 10 miles, south-east. There is an ancient Siva temple here, said to have been built by a Chóla king. The lands in this village are irrigated by the Amarávati.

Kozhumam: population 840, of whom 809 are Hindus and 31 Musalmans; private chatram; distance from Udamalpet 11 miles, south-east. There is an old mud fort in a ruined state; also an old Siva temple.

Kadattúr: population 2,661, of whom 2,383 are Hindus, 277 Musalmans and 1 Christian; distance from Udamalpet 11 miles, east. There is an old Siva temple here, said to have been built by one of the Chóla kings.

Periya Válavádi: population 1,940; distance from Udamalpet 5 miles, south-west. Good laced cloths are manufactured here.

Gudimangalam: population 2,344, of whom 2,313 are Hindus and 31 Musalmans; police station; distance from Udamalpet 8 miles, north-north-east. There is an old Siva temple here, partly ruined. It contains some inscriptions. One of them bears date S.S. 1450 (A.D. 1528).

Kannádipputtúr (Sirkár Kannádipputtúr): population 2,334, of whom 1,857 are Hindus, 235 Musalmans and 242 Christians; distance from Udamalpet 8 miles, south-south-east. There is an old Siva temple, said to have been built by a Chóla king.

Púndi: 14 miles south-west of Udamalpet. It is a village of the hill tribe called Malaiyarasar (Malasar) or 'hill kings,' and is between 2,000 and 3,000 feet above the sea, on the slopes of the Ánaimalai mountains. It is a dirty collection of huts in an ugly and feverish looking spot—a deep hollow, whence nothing can be seen, filled with scrub jungle. Four or five miles from this village are some interesting dolmens and built cairns. Speaking of them, Mr. Walhouse says: "the peculiarity of them is that the kistvaens are "surrounded by a low wall of squared stones built together, not "heaped like cairns. The nearest approach is the extraordinary "and characteristic tombs on the Nílgiris, consisting of circular

CHAP. XIX. UDAMALPET. — Places of interest.

"walls of rough stone, but these are circular, and never enclose "a dolmen or kistvaen; moreover, the Púndi example, being built "upon a surface of rock, must always have been free-standing, but "kistvaens on the plains were, originally at least, always subter-"ranean. Their existence may seem strange in these difficult fever-"haunted mountain tracts when their builders possessed the fertile "plains beneath, which are so thickly sprinkled with their tombs, "unless it be supposed they were the last raised after the primitive "race had been driven to the hilly fastnesses by alien invaders."[9]

Trimúrtikóvil or *Kurumalai:* 11 miles south-west of Udamalpet and 2½ miles east-south-east of Púndi. The village lies high up on the slopes of the Ánaimalai hills, 2,000 or 3,000 feet above the sea. It is difficult of access, and is seldom or never visited by Europeans. The inhabitants are Malaiyarasars (Malasars). Mr. Walhouse describes a remarkable structure here. At the bottom of the valley is a sculpture, on an immense boulder about 40 feet high, and upon its side, at two-thirds of its height, "there was indistinctly engraved the outline of a personage sitting "with hands and feet folded in front and wearing a tall mitre; "on each side of it was another figure, very indistinct and smaller "than the central; *but the whole group was not in a perpendi-"cular but a horizontal position, with heads to the east;* the "outlines were all much worn and seemed very old, and being "so high up, could only with difficulty be discerned. Beneath, "at the bottom of the boulder, there was a step, and over it an "emblem I could not make out, engraved on the rock, and "copiously smeared with oil. A canopy covered with flowers, gilt "and filagree was raised over the step and emblem. None but a "Bráhman might approach it closely. A ceremony is held there "every Sunday, and the rocky ground[10] in front is covered with the "graven prints and outlines of feet." There is a stone-built chatram close by, and near this eight stone images surrounding a stone pillar. The natives call this place the Trimúrtikóvil, but Mr. Walhouse suspects the group to be Buddhist (possibly Jain ?).

Sómavárapatti: population 3,048, of whom 2,963 are Hindus and 84 Musalmans; distance from Udamalpet 6 miles, north-west. A car festival in honour of a goddess called Kandiamman takes place here in Mási (February-March) at which about a thousand Chucklers and Kammavárs attend.

Sózhamádévi: population 1,454, of whom 726 are Musalmans and 728 Christians; distance from Udamalpet 11 miles,

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[9] *The Indian Antiquary,* vol. iii, p. 34. [10] *Ibid.,* p. 35.

north-north-east. There are three old temples dedicated to Siva, Vishnu and a village goddess. The first is in ruins.

Places of interest.

Sankararámanallúr or *Sankramanallúr* : population 4,014, of whom 3,904 are Hindus and 110 Musalmans; distance from Udamalpet 10 miles, east. There is an old Siva temple here with inscriptions. One of them is dated S.S. 1175 (A.D. 1253) and records a gift of lands to the temple by a Chóla king. The other is undated, but records a gift of lands to the temple during the reign of Tirumala Náyak of Madura.

Jóttampatti : this pálaiyam is situated in the north-east of the taluk, 7 miles to the east of Udamalpet town and contains a single village with a population of 646. The land revenue is estimated at Rs. 1,400, and the peshkash payable to Government amounts to Rs. 143. The present poligar is Kambála Jóta Náyakkar; he is of the Tottiyan or Kambalattán caste.

Maivádi : this pálaiyam is situated to the west of the Jóttampatti pálaiyam and is 5 miles east of Udamalpet. It contains a single village with a population of 1,670. The peshkash payable to Government is Rs. 561, and the annual béríz of the pálaiyam is approximately Rs. 4,300. The present poligar is Kumáraswámi Kálingaráya Kavundar; he is of the Vellála caste.

Védapatti : this pálaiyam is situated to the south of the Jóttampatti pálaiyam and to the east of the Maivádi pálaiyam. It is 8 miles east of Udamalpet and contains a single village, with 440 persons. The estimated annual land revenue is about Rs. 1,000, and the peshkash payable to Government amounts to Rs. 147. The present poligar is Kumára Véláyuda Kummalaswámi Náyakkar; he belongs to the Tottiyan or Kambalattán caste.

Tungávi : this pálaiyam, which consists of only one village, is bounded on the north by Metrátti and on the south by Maivádi and Jóttampatti, and is 6 miles east-north-east of Udamalpet. The annual land revenue is Rs. 4,500 and the peshkash Rs. 849. The present poligar is Síla Náyakkar *alias* Masayándi Síla Náyakkar. He belongs to the Tottiyan or Kambalattán caste. The proprietor is deeply involved, and the estate is now in the hands of the mortgagee, one Anantaráma Sástriyár.

Metrátti : this pálaiyam is situated to the north of Tungávi and contains a single village. The peshkash of the pálaiyam is Rs. 1,966, and the annual béríz is estimated at Rs. 7,400. The present poligar is Tirumalaiswámi Nattama Náyakkar; he is of the Tottiyan or Kambalattán caste.

CHAP. XIX.
G. T.
STATIONS.

List of Grand Trigonometrical Stations.

Taluk.	G.T. station.	Height above sea level.
		FT.
Bhavání	Bódamalai, H.S.	4,034
	Pálamalai, H.S.	4,924
	Úrác'chimalai, h.t.	1,437
Coimbatore ...	Attimalai, h.s.	2,562
	Coimbatore, s.	1,441
Dhárápuram ...	Kanappalikádu, s. (or N. W. end, Coimbatore Base)	1,017
	Kac'chamadai (or S. E. end, Coimbatore Base).	879
	Pac'chápálaiyam observatory	971
	Tiruman-karadu, S.	970
	Údiyúrmalai, h.s.	1,275
	Vattamalai, t.	951
	Nadukkáni	...
Erode	Sennimalai, H.S.	1,749
	Ezhumáttúr, h.s.	1,342
	Ettimalai, S.	618
Karúr	Rangamalai	3,099
Kollégál ...	Bandahalli Drug, H.S.	4,276
	Púnác'chibettu, H.S.	4,970
Palladam ...	Alagumalai, H.S.	1,353
	Alagumalai, h.t.	1,362
	Vediyapálaiyam, s.	1,467
Polláchi	Kinattukkadavu, s.	1,212
Satyamangalam.	Kambattaráyan, h.m.s.	5,571
	Kómálikkaradu, S.	757
	Tittamalai, H.S.	1,218
	Urugamalai, H.S.	4,879
Udamalpet ...	Kollupálaiyam, S. (hamlet of Gudimangalam)	1,208

NOTE.—H.S. means hill station (principal).
S. „ station (principal).
h.s. „ hill station (secondary).
s. „ station (secondary).
h.t. „ hill temple (secondary).
h.m.s. „ hill mark signal.

CHAPTER XX.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

CHAP. XX.
WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

Weights.

THE ordinary table of weights used in the district is as follows :—

1 duddu or tola	=	180 grains.
8 duddus	=	1 palam.
3 palams	=	1 country seer.
5 seers	=	1 viss.
8 viss	=	1 maund (25 lb.).
10 maunds	=	1 podi or bullock load.
2 podis	=	1 candy or báram.
50 palams	=	1 túkku.
2 túkkus or 100 palams	=	1 tulám.

According to the above table the maund weight is equal to 960 tolas. In Coimbatore, Palladam and Pollächi the maund is 1,000 tolas, so that the pound is exactly 40 tolas. In Satyamangalam two different maund weights are used ; these are known as the 'big' and the 'small' maund and are respectively 960 tolas and 1,000 tolas. In that taluk and in Palladam a weight of 10,000 tolas, or 10 big maunds, called a 'sattai,' is used in weighing cotton seed. The 'sattai' weight used in Bhaváni, Erode and Udamalpet is only 9,600 tolas. In some places a weight of 10 tuláms, called a 'kandagam,' is in use; it is 8,000 tolas or 206 lb. The ráttal of 40 tolas is also in use in certain localities, and is considered equivalent to 1 pound avoirdupois, though the pound is really 38·9 tolas. For weighing medicine a palam of 3 rupees' weight is used, while cotton wool is sold by the túkku of 50 palams.

For weighing gold and precious stones, separate weights are used by goldsmiths and jewellers. The old table was —

9 víraráya fanams (of 5·86 grains each)	=	1 bahadúri pagoda (52·7 grains).
30 víraráya fanams	=	1 Arcot rupee (175·8 grains).

But at present the rupee of 180 grains is sub-divided into $30\frac{1}{2}$ fanams' weight :—

4 beads or red seeds (kundumani)	=	1 fanam or panavidai.
9 fanams or panavidais	=	1 pagoda or varáhanidai.
$30\frac{1}{2}$ fanams or panavidais	=	1 tola or rupee.

In the Karúr taluk the pagoda weight is reckoned at 32 beads, and $3\frac{3}{16}$ varáhanidais or pagodas make a tola. In Dhárápuram the pagoda weight is reckoned at $9\frac{1}{2}$ fanams.

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WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

Silver is generally weighed by rupees, though in some places the palam and the viss are used.

Grain measures.

The grain measure used as a standard by the Government stamping establishment is the pakka padi containing 144 tolas' weight of rice when moderately heaped. This is in use in all the taluks except Dhárápuram, Udamalpet and Kollégál. In the first two taluks, the pakka padi contains 160 tolas of rice fully heaped and in the third 130 tolas.

The ordinary table of higher measures is as follows:—

2 small padis or country padis (náttu padis)	= 1 pakka padi.
2 pakka padis	= 1 vallam or balla.
4 vallams	= 1 marakkál.
4 marakkáls	= 1 moda.
40 vallams	= 1 kandagam.
2 modas	= 1 salagai.
3 salagais	= 1 podi or bullock load.
8 podis	= 1 candy.

The marakkál used in Karúr taluk contains 3 pakka padis, and 12 of these marakkáls make a kalam. The salagai of Coimbatore is of two different quantities, 60 and 72 pakka padis respectively, the latter being mostly confined to the measurement of paddy, whilst that of Palladam and Dhárápuram is 80. In Satyamangalam and Bhaváni it is 64. In Kollégál the toom or kolagam (= $3\frac{1}{4}$ pakka padis of 130 tolas each) is in use. The aliquot parts of small padis are also in use throughout the district. For convenience of reference a statement showing the different weights and measures in use in each taluk is appended to this chapter.

Liquid measures.

The ordinary grain measures with their sub-multiples are used for measuring milk, oil, curds and ghee. In Dhárápuram an ordinary earthenware pot equivalent to 16 pakka measures is used for oil and is known as a 'kudam.' A still larger measure, called 'podi,' is used in large transactions; it contains 8 kudams. In Satyamangalam the kudam, $\frac{1}{4}$ kudam and $\frac{1}{8}$ kudam are used, which bear on them a stamp of 1,000[1] tolas, 250 tolas and 125 tolas respectively. The kudam used in Coimbatore contains about 1,000 tolas. There are also fractions of the kudam up to one-sixteenth. In Bhaváni, on the other hand, the kudam contains 8 measures of 144 tolas each; and in this taluk the vallam containing two such measures is also in use. Neither of these measures, however, has been verified or stamped.

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[1] The *kudam* is apparently intended to contain 1,000 tolas or a local maund of ghee or oil (G.O., dated 4th March 1893, No. 210, Revenue).

Until very recently unirrigated land was measured with a rope of 16 báms or fathoms, the bám being 6 feet $4\frac{1}{2}$ inches.

CHAP. XX.
WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

Land measures.

1 rope	=	34 English yards=102 feet.
4 ropes or 408 feet	=	1 sangili or chain.
1 chain square or 166,464 square feet	=	1 balla or 3·82 acres.
	or	
1 rope square	=	10,404 square feet.
16 ropes square	=	1 chain square or 1 balla = 3·82 acres.

Irrigated land used to be measured in kánis, a rod of 24 feet being used for the purpose.

1 rod square or 576 square feet	=	1 guli (kuzhi) or gunta.
100 gulis	=	1 káni or 1·322314 acres.

The local term 'má' denotes an extent of 240 gulis or 2·4 kánis (3·1728 acres). The term 'sei' or chei is also used, though rarely; it is said to be 120 gulis or 1·2 kánis (1·5864 acres). The 'vallam' of $3\frac{3}{4}$ acres is mentioned in some old accounts.

These measures are now replaced by the new survey unit, viz., the acre, divided into 100 cents, for purposes of account.

Linear measures.

The English inch, foot and yard are now generally used, but the old native terms are still met with.

These are—

8 inches (angulam)	=	1 span (ján).
12 inches	=	1 foot (adi).
18 inches	=	1 cubit (muzham).
3 feet	=	1 yard (gajam).
6 feet $4\frac{1}{2}$ inches	=	1 fathom (már).
16 fathoms	=	1 rope (102 feet).

The term 'angulam' in Tamil signifies the thumb; and in the above measure, it is the distance from the thumb joint to the tip of the nail.

The muzham is the length from the elbow joint to the tip of the finger of some tall man chosen as a standard; the adi, the length of the foot of some tall man; and the már, the length from tip to tip of the fingers of the extended arms of a tall individual.

For distances of greater length there is no defined measure. The term 'názhigai vazhi' is ordinarily used by the people to denote the distance walked in a názhigai or 24 English minutes, which is approximately $1\frac{1}{3}$ miles. Seven and a half názhigai vazhis make a kádam of about 10 miles.

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Other popular expressions are anaippu = about 100 yards, the favourite distance of a witness who does not care to particularise in his evidence; a kádu or field, of which about 5 or 6 go to the mile, &c.

Time.

Time is now being reckoned by the people on the English system; but the native mode is still very common, especially in the rural tracts. The old table was—

60 vinádis	=	1 názhigai or 24 English minutes.
$3\frac{3}{4}$ názhigais	=	1 muhúrtam.
2 muhúrtams or $7\frac{1}{2}$ názhigais	=	1 jámam (watch).
8 jámams or 60 názhigais	=	1 day (24 hours).

The following colloquial expressions are used in the district:—

Cock-crow	=	4 A.M.
Conjee time	=	7 A.M.
Return of the cattle	=	4–5 P.M.
Lamp-lighting time	=	6–7 P.M.
Supper	=	7–8 P.M.

There are twelve months in each year, varying in length up to as many as 32 days. The year begins on the first day of the month Chittirai and ends on the last day of Panguni, or in other words, it runs from the 12th or 13th of April to the 11th or 12th of April following. The names of the twelve months, with their corresponding English months, will be found in Chapter V of the first volume of this manual. The names of the sixty years of the Hindu cycle are not generally known to English readers, and the following table is, therefore, given for the current cycle:—

Name of Tamil year.	Corresponding year of the Christian era.
Prabhava	1867– 68
Vibhava	1868– 69
Sukla	1869– 70
Pramódúta	1870– 71
5 Prajótpatti	1871– 72
Ángírasa	1872– 73
Srímukha	1873– 74
Bhava	1874– 75
Yuva	1875– 76
10 Dhátu	1876– 77
Ísvara	1877– 78
Bahudhánya	1878– 79
Pramádi	1879– 80
Vikrama	1880– 81
15 Vishu	1881– 82

Time.

	Name of Tamil year.	Corresponding year of the Christian era.
	Chitrabhánu	1882– 83
	Svabhánu	1883– 84
	Tárana	1884– 85
	Párthiva	1885– 86
20	Vyaya	1886– 87
	Sarvajit	1887– 88
	Sarvadhári	1888– 89
	Viródhi	1889– 90
	Vikriti	1890– 91
25	Khara	1891– 92
	Nandana	1892– 93
	Vijaya	1893– 94
	Jaya	1894– 95
	Manmatha	1895– 96
30	Durmukhi	1896– 97
	Hévilambi	1897– 98
	Vilambi	1898– 99
	Vikári	1899–1900
	Sárvari	1900– 1
35	Plava	1901– 2
	Subhakrit	1902– 3
	Sóbhakrit	1903– 4
	Kródhi	1904– 5
	Visvávasu	1905– 6
40	Parábhava	1906– 7
	Plavanga	1907– 8
	Kílaka	1908– 9
	Saumya	1909– 10
	Sádhárana	1910– 11
45	Viródhikrit	1911– 12
	Parídhávi	1912– 13
	Pramádícha	1913– 14
	Ánanda	1914– 15
	Rákshasa	1915– 16
50	Nala	1916– 17
	Pingala	1917– 18
	Kálayukti	1918– 19
	Siddhárthi	1919– 20
	Raudri	1920– 21
55	Durmati	1921– 22
	Dundubhi	1922– 23
	Rudhiródgári	1923– 24
	Raktákshi	1924– 25
	Kródhana	1925– 26
60	Akshaya	1926– 27

Statement of Weights and Measures.

[Contents are stated in tolas' weight of second-sort rice ; weights are stated in tolas.]

Names of Weights and Measures.	Name of Taluk.									
	Bhavání.	Coimbatore.	Dhárápuram.	Erode.	Karúr.	Kollégál.	Palladam.	Polláchi.	Satyamangalam.	Udamalpet.
Measures of Capacity.										
Padi	72	72	80	72	72	65	72	72	72	80
Pakka padi	144	144	160	144	144	130	144	144	144	160
Balla or vallam ...	288	288	320	288	288	260	288	288	288	320
Moda	4,608	...	5,120	4,608	4,608	...	4,608	4,608	4,608	5,120
Podi	27,648	...	30,720	27,648	27,648	...	27,648	27,648	27,648	28,800
Salagai	9,216	8,640	12,800	12,384	...	...	11,520	8,640	9,216	9,600
Kalam	...	...	...	...	5,184	...	...	...	...	...
Kandagam	...	...	...	...	...	8,841	...	...	6,400	...
Kulagam	...	432	...	...	...	442½	...	...	320	...
Weights.										
Palam	8	8	8	8	8	...	8	8	8	8
Seer	24	24	24	24	24	24	24	24	24	24
Viss	120	120	120	120	120	120	120	120	120	120
Maund	960	1,000	960	960	960	960	1,000	1,000	960 & 1,000	960
Podi	...	10,000	9,600	9.600	...	...	10,000	9,600 & 10,000	...	...
Candy	19,200	20,000	...	19,200	19,200	19,200	20,000	20,000	20,000	19.200
Sattai	9,600	...	...	9,600	...	...	10,000	...	10,000	9,600
Tulám	...	800	800	800	600	...	800	800	800	800
Pound	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40

CHAPTER XXI.

LIST OF COLLECTORS AND JUDGES.

CHAP. XXI. COLLECTORS.

UPON the assumption of Coimbatore by the East India Company in 1799, the tracts north of the Nóyil, comprising the present taluks of Bhaváni, Coimbatore, Erode, Kollégál and Satyamangalam and part of Palladam, were placed under Captain (afterwards Major) MacLeod, Collector of Salem, while the rest of Palladam, Dhárápuram, Karúr, Pollàchi and Udamalpet were placed under Mr. Hurdis, the Collector of Dindigul. In 1801 Salem was separated from Coimbatore, and the Collector of the northern division was thus left in sole charge of the northern taluks. In November 1804 the two divisions were united and placed under Mr. Garrow.

The annexed list gives the names of the various Collectors who have been in charge of the district from the time it came into the possession of the British. A list of Judges in the district is also appended, but it is not complete, as no information is available prior to the year 1843 :—

List of Collectors.

Names of Collectors.	Permanent, Acting, or in Charge.	Length of tenure of Office.	
		From	To
Captain W. MacLeod * ...	Permanent ...	6th July 1799	2nd May 1803
Mr. D. Cockburn ...	In charge ...	4th Mar. 1801	7th May 1801
Mr. J. Hepburn	Do. ...	2nd Oct. 1801	19th Oct. 1801
Mr. T. B. Hurdis † ...	Permanent ...	6th July 1799	......
Mr. H. S. Græme ...	Do. ...	......	24th Nov. 1804
Mr. W. Garrow ‡ ...	In charge ...	16th July 1802	2nd May 1803
Do.	Permanent ...	2nd May 1803	24th Nov. 1804
Do. §	Do. ...	24th Nov. 1804	20th Jan. 1815
Mr. J. Riddel	In charge ...	10th May 1809	16th Aug. 1809
Do.	Do. ...	11th Jan. 1811	25th Apl. 1811
Mr. J. C. Whish ...	Do. ...	1st June 1814	27th June 1814
Do.	Do. ...	21st Jan. 1815	7th Mar. 1815
Mr. W. Bell	Do. ...	8th Mar. 1815	1st Apl. 1815
Do.	Acting ...	2nd Apl. 1815	12th Sept. 1815
Mr. J. Sullivan	Permanent ...	12th Sept. 1815	25th Jan. 1830
Mr. J. C. Whish ...	In charge ...	15th Mar. 1817	26th May 1817
Mr. W. Thackeray ...	Acting ...	26th May 1817	24th June 1818
Mr. J. C. Whish	In charge ...	5th Oct. 1818	20th Nov. 1818
Do.	Do. ...	2nd July 1819	4th Jan. 1820

* Collector of the Northern Division.

† Collector of the Southern Division.

‡ In charge of North Coimbatore.

§ Appointed Collector of the whole district.

CHAP. XXI.
COLLECTORS.

List of Collectors—cont.

Names of Collectors.	Permanent, Acting, or in Charge.	Length of tenure of Office.	
		From	To
Mr. J. C. Whish	Acting ...	5th Jan. 1820.	16th Feb. 1821.
Mr. J. Thomas	Permanent ...	25th Jan. 1830.	9th Nov. 1832.
Mr. J. F. Thomas ...	Acting ...	31st July 1832.	9th Nov. 1832.
Mr. G. D. Drury ...	Permanent ...	10th Nov. 1832	1st Mar. 1841.
Mr. H. Frere	In charge ...	25th June 1838	9th Aug. 1838.
Mr. W. Babington ...	Acting ...	10th Aug. 1838	28th Apl. 1840.
Mr. W. C. Ogilvie ...	Do. ...	28th Apl. 1840	26th Aug. 1840.
Mr. G. D. Drury ...	Do. ...	2nd Mar. 1841	20th Mar. 1841.
Mr. J. Bird	In charge ...	21st Mar. 1841.	5th Apl. 1841.
Mr. J. C. Wroughton ...	Permanent ...	2nd Mar. 1841.	14th Mar. 1851.
Mr. J. Bird	In charge ...	28th Apl. 1841.	5th May 1841.
Do.	Do. ...	6th Feb. 1843.	30th Mar. 1843.
Do.	Do. ...	9th Jan. 1849.	30th Mar. 1849.
Mr. E. B. Thomas ...	Acting ...	31st Mar. 1849.	14th Mar. 1851.
Do.	Permanent ...	14th Mar. 1851.	4th May 1862.
Mr. W. E. Underwood ...	Acting ...	10th Oct. 1851.	1st Apl. 1852.
Mr. W. M. Molle ...	In charge ...	30th Nov. 1853.	20th Jan. 1854.
Mr. M. J. Walhouse ...	Do. ...	19th Oct. 1854.	18th Nov. 1854.
Mr. G. S. Morris ...	Do. ...	14th Jan. 1856.	14th Feb. 1856.
Mr. M. J. Walhouse ...	Do. ...	15th Jan. 1857.	14th Feb. 1857.
Mr. J. W. Cherry ...	Acting ...	26th Mar. 1858.	11th Mar. 1859.
Mr. M. J. Walhouse ...	In charge ...	12th Mar. 1859.	9th Apl. 1859.
Mr. F. C. Carr ...	Do. ...	1st May 1862.	4th May 1862.
Mr. P. Grant	Permanent ...	5th May 1862	12th Mar. 1868.
Mr. A. MacGregor ...	Acting ...	25th Sept. 1866.	10th Jan. 1867.
Mr. W. MacQuhæ ...	In charge ...	1st Feb. 1868.	14th Feb. 1868.
Mr. A. Wedderburn ...	Acting ...	15th Feb. 1868.	12th Mar. 1868.
Do. ...	Permanent ...	13th Mar. 1868.	16th Mar. 1878.
Mr. A. McC. Webster ...	Acting ...	1st Mar. 1869.	31st Mar. 1869.
Mr. J. W. Best	In charge ...	26th Aug. 1869.	27th Sept. 1869.
Mr. H. E. Sullivan ...	Acting ...	27th Sept. 1869.	9th May 1870.
Mr. J. W. Best	In charge ...	10th May 1870.	9th July 1870.
Mr. H. E. Sullivan ...	Acting ...	24th Aug. 1870.	25th Feb. 1871.
Mr. J. W. Best	In charge ...	25th Feb. 1871.	28th Feb. 1871.
Mr. A. McC. Webster ...	Permanent ...	16th Mar. 1878.	22nd Sept. 1879.
Mr. G. MacWatters ...	Acting ...	11th Mar. 1879.	6th June 1879.
Mr. A. T. Arundel ...	In charge ...	23rd Sept. 1879.	14th Oct. 1879.
Mr. W. Wilson	Permanent ...	15th Oct. 1879.	14th July 1882.
Mr. F. A. Nicholson ...	Acting ...	8th April 1880.	11th Aug. 1880.
Do. ...	In charge ...	15th Aug. 1881.	6th Oct. 1881.
Mr. G. D. Leman ...	Acting ...	7th Oct. 1881.	8th Dec. 1881.
Mr. A. J. Stuart ...	Do. ...	9th Dec. 1881.	17th Mar. 1882.
Mr. G. D. Leman ...	Do. ...	18th Mar. 1882.	14th July 1882.
Do. ...	Permanent ...	15th July 1882.	29th Mar. 1883.
Mr. F. A. Nicholson ...	Acting ...	30th Mar. 1883.	5th June 1883.
Mr. G. D. Leman ...	Permanent ...	6th June 1883.	5th May 1884.
Mr. H. J. Stokes ...	Acting ...	6th May 1884.	14th Nov. 1884.
Mr. G. D. Leman ...	Permanent ...	15th Nov. 1884.	1st Mar. 1887.
Mr. W. A. Willock ...	Acting ...	2nd Mar. 1887.	12th April 1887.
Mr. J. Grose	Permanent ...	13th April 1887.	29th June 1887.
Mr. J. Sturrock	Acting ...	30th June 1887.	23rd Feb. 1888.
Mr. J. H. A. Tremenheere.	Do. ...	24th Feb. 1888.	3rd Oct. 1888.
Mr. K. C. Mánavédanrájá.	In charge ...	4th Oct. 1888.	16th Oct. 1888.
Mr. J. Sturrock	Acting ...	17th Oct. 1888.	16th Jan. 1889.
Mr. J. N. Atkinson ...	Acting ...	17th Jan. 1889.	3rd Feb. 1889.
Mr. J. H. A. Tremenheere.	Do. ...	4th Feb. 1889.	11th June 1889.
Mr. K. C. Mánavédanrájá.	In charge ...	12th June 1889.	22nd July 1889.

List of Collectors—cont.

Names of Collectors.	Permanent, Acting, or in Charge.	Length of tenure of Office.	
		From	To
Mr. J. Thomson	Acting ...	23rd July 1889.	10th April 1890.
Mr. J. Sturrock	Permanent ...	11th April 1890.	23rd May 1891.
Mr. K. C. Mánavédanrája.	Acting ...	24th May 1891.	4th June 1891.
Mr. W. J. Tate	Do. ...	5th June 1891.	1st Sept. 1891.
Mr. J Sturrock	Permanent ...	2nd Sept. 1891.	5th May 1893.
Mr. G. W. Dance ...	Acting ...	6th May 1893.	27th Oct. 1893.
Mr. J. Sturrock	Permanent ...	28th Oct. 1893.	7th Jan. 1894.

JUDGES.

List of Judges.

Names of Judges.	Length of tenure of Office.	
	From	To
Mr. H. Frere	Jan. 1843 ...	Oct. 1843.
Mr. G. Bird	Oct. 1843 ...	Jan. 1847.
Mr. G. J. Waters	Jan. 1847 ...	Nov. 1847.
Mr. W. Harington	Dec. 1847 ...	July 1849.
Mr. G. Bird	July 1849 ...	Feb. 1850.
Mr. T. B. Roupell	Feb. 1850 ...	Feb. 1857.
Mr. S. N. Ward	Feb. 1857 ...	Mar. 1864.
Mr. G. A. Harris	April 1864 ...	June 1866.
Mr. H. D. Cook	July 1866 ...	—— 1868.
Mr. E. F. Webster	—— 1868 ...	July 1869.
Mr. F. M. Kindersley	July 1869 ...	Feb. 1871.
Mr. G. H. Ellis	Mar. 1871 ...	April 1873.
Mr. J. R. Daniel	April 1873 ...	May 1873.
Mr. G. H. Ellis	May 1873 ...	May 1874.
Mr. F. M. Kindersley	July 1874 ...	Feb. 1876.
Mr. J. G. Horsfall	Mar. 1876 ...	Aug. 1876.
Mr. F. M. Kindersley	Sept. 1876 ...	April 1878.
Mr. A. J. Stuart	April 1878 ...	April 1879.
Mr. F. M. Kindersley	May 1879 ...	Nov. 1880.
Mr. F. C. Carr-Gomm	Dec. 1880 ...	June 1882.
Mr. H. Wigram	July 1882 ...	Sept. 1882.
Mr. E. N. Overbury	Oct. 1882 ...	Dec. 1882.
Mr. H. Wigram	Dec. 1882 ...	June 1883.
Mr. T. Weir	July 1883 ...	Sept. 1883.
Mr. H. Wigram	Oct. 1883 ...	Jan. 1884.
Mr. G. A. Parker	Feb. 1884 ...	July 1884.
Mr. H. Wigram	July 1884 ...	Oct. 1884.
Mr. J. W. Reid	Oct. 1884 ...	July 1886.
Mr. H. J. Stokes	Aug. 1886 ...	Dec. 1886.
Mr. W. F. Grahame	Dec. 1886 ...	Mar. 1887.
Mr. H. J. Stokes	April 1887 ...	Sept. 1887.
Mr. G. D. Irvine	Oct. 1887 ...	Feb. 1889.
Mr. L. A. Campbell	Mar. 1889 ...	Feb. 1890.
Mr. G. D. Irvine	Mar. 1890 ...	May 1891.
Mr. L. A. Campbell	June 1891 ...	Jan. 1893.
Mr. T. M. Horsfall	Feb. 1893 ...	Mar. 1893.
Mr. R. D. Broadfoot	May 1893 ...	Jan. 1894.

CHAPTER XXII.

TOMBS AND MONUMENTS.

CH. XXII. TOMBS AND MONUMENTS.

THERE are very few European tombs in the district. The earliest of the tombs that bear any legible inscriptions is the one in a field at Malappatti, hamlet of Tándóni village, in Karúr taluk. It is an isolated tomb and is the only one of any historical interest. It contains the following inscription :—

> 1783, *2nd April.*—Lieutenant STANLEY, 102nd Regiment, killed; 19 Europeans and 30 sepoys killed and wounded in the siege of the fort of Karúr.

A list of tombs has been compiled, and copies of this list can be had at the District Press.

The practice of erecting monuments with inscriptions over the remains of the dead is rarely met with among the natives of Southern India, and this is why very few tombs of distinguished natives can be identified. There is a fine tomb at Nerúr, a village in Karúr taluk, erected to the memory of the great sage Sadásiva Brahmam. An annual festival is held at this spot in the Tamil month Aippasi (October-November) in commemoration of his death, when large numbers of people repair to the spot to pay their reverence to the departed sage.

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